DTIC TILE COPY

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF PRISONERS CONFINED IN THE FEDERAL AND U.S. ARMY

CORRECTIONAL SYSTEMS

Ву

David K. Haasenritter

Bachelor of Science Chaminade University, 1982



Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Criminal Justice in the College of Criminal Justice University of South Carolina 1990

> Approved for public releases Dismounes Usumited

ollege of Criminal Justice Director of Thesis

College of Criminal Justice

2nd Reader

18 July 1990

Final

A Comparative Study of the Demographic Profiles of Prisoners Confined in the Federal and U.S. Army Correctional Systems.

Captain David K. Haasenritter

U.S. Army Student Detachment ATTN: ATZI-TBD Fort Benjamin Harrison, IN 46216-5820

U.S. Army Student Detachment ATTN: ATZI-TBD Fort Benjamin Harrison, IN 46216-5820

Masters Thesis, College of Criminal Justice, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina 29208

Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

This study compared the demographic profile of prisoners confined in the Army Correctional System and Federal Bureau of Prisons. This study also presented the history and mission of the Army Correctional System and Federal Bureau of Prisons. The population for this study consisted of all prisoners confined as of September 1989 at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, U.S. Army Correctional Brigade, and all prisoners confined under the control of the Federal Bureau of Prisons for the same month. The results indicated military prisoners were not similar to federal prisoners. Military prisoners were younger, more likely to possess a high school degree, had less prior criminal activity, and committed different types of crimes than federal prisoners Based on these findings, the limited impact on civilian prison overcrowding, and the negative impact on military prisons and military readiness, strong concideration should be given to consolidation of military prisoners within the military, rather than consolidation with the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

Military Correctional System, Military Prisoners, Federal Prisoners, Prisoner Demographics, Federal Bureau of Prisons 117

UNCLASSIFIED

Table of Contents

Dedicationv
Acknowledgementsvi
Abstractvii
Chapter I: Statement of the Problem1
Background1
The Problem12
Significance14
Hypotheses15
Definitions16
Limitations19
Chapter II: Review of the Literature21
Army Corrections System21
History21
Prior to the First Military Prison21
The U.S. Military Prison (1874-1895)24
First U.S. Penitentiary (1895-1906)25
Return of U.S. Military Prison (1906-1929)26
Leavenworth Penitentiary Annex (1929-1940)28
Return of U.S. Disciplinary
Barracks (1940-1968)29
Influence of Vietnam Conflict (1968-1980)33
Organization and Mission
Installation Detention Facility39

U.S. Army Correctional Brigade39				
U.S. Disciplinary Barracks43				
Federal Bureau of Prisons45				
History45				
Organization and Programs50				
Related Demographic Studies53				
Emotional Disorder Among Offenders53				
Emotionally Disturbed Military Criminal Offender55				
Child Sex Offenders and Rapist in a				
Military Priscn Setting55				
Historical Military Studies56				
Veterans in Prison58				
Published Prisoner Demographic Statistics60				
Chapter III: Methodology64				
Population64				
Data Collection64				
Data Analysis66				
Chapter IV: Findings67				
Prison Facilities67				
Population and Capacity67				
Demographic Characteristics68				
Sex68				
Age69				
Race71				

Marital Status74
Education77
Sentence Length79
Types of Offenses85
Chapter V: Conclusion88
Thesis Overview88
Conclusion95
Recommendations for Future Study98
Summary101
Poforongos 104



Acces	or Fer	· · · - · · - · - · - · · · · · · · · ·	
DTIC	sanced.)	
By Distribution			
Fig. of post for a			
Dist	100 C 10 M		
A-1			

DEDICATION

To my loving wife, Scharlotta Ann Haasenritter, and my loving mother, Emma Nolan Haasenritter, for their loving support, encouragement, prayers, and words of advise in all things.

Acknowledgements

I give all thanks to GOD who provided me with his love, my family, and the necessary patience and strength to accomplish this goal. With God all things are possible.

To my wife, Scharlotta, who has also labored through these months. Thank you for your love, support, and new son.

Much gratitude is extended to the U.S. Army for providing the opportunity and funding for my graduate school experience. Special thanks to the officers and soldiers, who have supported me throughout my career.

I extend my appreciation to my thesis committee who graciously steered me through the completion of this thesis. To Dr. Joann Morton, thank you for the support, encouragement and friendship throughout my graduate school experience. To Ms. Patricia Watson, thank you for the encouragement and constructive advise during this thesis.

My appreciation is expressed to Mrs. Bonnie Cory and MSG C. Oxley for providing me with the idea for my thesis and providing up to date information in relation to the proposed consolidation of the military and federal correctional system.

My appreciation is expressed to the agencies within the Army Correctional System and the Federal Bureau of Prisons for the cooperation that was provided in furnishing the information necessary for this study.

Abstract

This study compared the demographic profile of prisoners confined in the Army Correctional System and Federal Bureau of Prisons. This study also presented the history and mission of the Army Correctional System and Federal Bureau of Prisons. The population for this study consisted of all prisoners confined as of September 1989 at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, U.S. Army Correctional Brigade, and all prisoners confined under the control of the Federal Bureau of Prisons for the same month. results indicated military prisoners were not similar to federal prisoners. Military prisoners were younger, more likely to possess a high school degree, had less prior criminal activity, and committed different types of crimes than federal prisoners. Based on these findings, the limited impact on civilian prison overcrowding, and the negative impact on military prisons and military readiness, strong consideration should be given to consolidation of military prisoners within the military, rather than / consolidation with the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

CHAPTER I

Statement of the Problem

Background

In 1875, the United States Military Prison and military correctional system was established. Prior to this, military prisoners were confined at military stockades and state penitentiaries. An inspection of these institutions revealed they were overcrowded and in poor condition. The prisoners were being abused, received no rehabilitative treatment, and there was no uniform treatment among the institutions. This type of treatment of military prisoners in these institutions led to the establishment of a military prison system. Between 1875 and 1989 the United States Disciplinary Barracks, previously the U.S. Military Prison, was twice transferred to the control of the Department of Justice. In both instances, military prisoners were transferred to and warehoused in overcrowded military stockades which provided no rehabilitative treatment (Diamond, 1989; Youngs, 1983).

"Budget cuts", "base closures", and "readiness and efficiency" are phrases of the 1990's within the U.S. military. Budget cuts and base closures are being forced by many factors, such as the United States federal budget deficits, perestroika, the impending reunification of Germany, and the ending of the so called "cold war". In

1990, U.S. politicians view the U.S. military as too massive for the world situation. The defense budget is seen by many politicians as a way of lowering the United States federal deficit or financing national social programs. The military is being forced to cut spending and personnel at a rate that necessitates placing all programs under review for reduction or elimination. The military correctional system is one such program under review in 1990.

In November 1989, the Department of Defense began to consider the consolidation of military prisoners and prison facilities, and the transfer of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons in order to reduce the military budget. Along with the transfer of prisoners, the military would also transfer excess prison facilities (Roth, 1990). The transfer of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons would cause a major reorganization in the military justice system and military correctional system that is unique and separate from any civilian system.

There are a number of arguments against eliminating the military correctional system. First, the entire military system of justice is a separate system mandated by Congress and recognized by the United States Supreme Court (Schlueter, 1982). The military has its own laws, the Uniform Code of Military Justice, which operates

independently of any civilian criminal justice system (Brodsky, 1970). The Uniform Code of Military Justice specifies the type of conduct for which a soldier may be punished. The military has separate crime and court procedures from the civilian system and many believe it needs a separate corrections system to rehabilitate and punish its offenders. It is argued that the military must have a system capable of operating in time of peace or war and within the unique disciplinary requirements of the military community (Schlueter). Also some crimes in the military, such as absent without leave and disrespect, are not crimes in the civilian community, but such action in the military undermines maintaining order and discipline needed during peace and war.

Different goals and objectives also support a separate system. The Department of Defense maintains a policy of rehabilitation of service members who have been sentenced to a correctional or confinement facility. Correctional facilities and programs are authorized under Title 10 of the United States Code, Chapter 48, Sections 951-954 (Department of the Army, 1990), and according to Turner (1965), the military recognizes its responsibilities to the individual and the society to which he will return. Once rehabilitated, the soldier will either return to the military as a productive soldier or to the civilian

community as a productive citizen (Turner). The military correctional system provides the soldier an opportunity for the future through training, rehabilitation, and treatment.

There are four imperatives of military corrections that explain why the military is in the corrections business. The four imperatives describe corrections as:

(a) a important component of military discipline, command authority, and military justice; (b) more than warehousing or confinement; (c) increases the quality of service members in the service; and (d) contributes to the warfighting mission of the military (Military Police Proponency, 1989). These imperatives, according to the Army, emphasize the "difference in correctional philosophy between the overcrowded civilian facilities where prisoners are warehoused and the uniqueness of military correctional facilities and programs where a multidisciplinary approach addresses all of the needs of military prisoners" (Military Police Proponency, 1989, p. 2).

In 1990 the Army Corrections System was organized in a three tier system. The three tier system was based on sentence length rather than facility security classification used by the federal and state systems. The three tier system consisted of: (1) the Installation Detention Facilities which are located Army wide and confine prisoners sentenced from one day to six months; (2)

the United States Correctional Brigade, located at Fort Riley, Kansas, used to confine prisoners sentenced from 6 to 24 months; and (3) the United States Disciplinary Barracks located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, used to confine prisoners sentenced for more than 24 months. The type of confinement and correctional treatment programs depended on the specific tier and facility to which a soldier was confined. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks was the only maximum security facility in the military system and serves all branches of the service.

The idea of consolidating the military correctional system and the transfer of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons had been under review since 1989. However, as of April 1990 three options relative to military corrections were under final review before submittal to the Bush administration. These options were based on the need to cut the military budget, the under utilization of military prison bed space and the overcrowding of civilian prisons. The final review will be based on a cost/benefit analysis (Department of the Army, 1990). The cost benefit analysis will be based on a survey of military correctional facilities with a capacity of more than 20 prisoners (Department of the Army). The cost/benefit analysis survey will focus on facility staffing, facility budget and operating cost, facility

prisoner population statistics, installation engineer information, military construction appropriation, procurement appropriation, prison labor benefits, and installation personnel staffing pertaining to the correctional facility on the installation (Department of the Army). Non-quantifiable data, such as quality of life, success rate while on parole, rehabilitative opportunities and moral obligation were also said to be part of the cost/benefit analysis, but no study was known to have been conducted evaluating these areas.

Option one would consolidate bed space within each service prison system. No prisoners would be transferred to the Federal Bureau of Prisons based on the assumption that the Federal Bureau of Prisons would not or could not accept military prisoners (Roth, 1990). Each service would keep its separate prison system. The Navy, Air Force, and Marines would have the option of transferring some long term prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons (Department of the Army, 1990). Military prisoners would serve in joint service regional correctional facilities and centralized long-term facilities (Roth; Department of the Army). The United States Disciplinary Barracks and the United States Army Correctional Brigade would serve as the military facilities for military prisoners from all branches sentenced to more than one year and would be

operated and funded by the Army (Department of the Army). The military correctional system would provide pretrial confinement, post-trial correctional treatment, service unique rehabilitation and restoration to duty programs, and mobilization contingencies (Department of the Army). Eight detainment facilities would be closed with the elimination of approximately 1524 prison bed spaces which should prove no problem since in 1989 the military used only 60.9 percent of its stateside prison bed space (Roth). This option would save money and personnel by consolidating military prison facilities and eliminating excess facilities, personnel and operational costs.

Option two would provide for the transfer of prisoners with sentences of more than one year to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. As of April 1990, this total was approximately 2,255 prisoners (Roth, 1990). The remaining prisoners would serve in joint service or service regional correctional facilities (Roth, Department of the Army, 1990). The military correctional system would provide pretrial confinement, limited post-trial correctional treatment, service unique rehabilitation and restoration to duty programs, and mobilization contingencies (Department of the Army). Five correctional and detention facilities would be closed, eliminating approximately 3,000 prison bed spaces (Roth). Included in the closing would be the United

States Disciplinary Barracks and the United States Army
Correctional Brigade (Roth). The United States
Disciplinary Barracks currently houses long term prisoners
from all services.

Option three would provide for the transfer of all military prisoners with a sentence longer than five years to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. As of April 1990, this total was approximately 1,459 prisoners (Roth, 1990). Prisoners with sentences from one to five years would serve at a Department of Defense midterm confinement center, with other prisoners assigned to regional joint-service detention facilities (Roth). The United States Disciplinary Barracks would become the midterm confinement center (Roth). The military correctional system would provide pretrial confinement, limited post-trial correctional treatment, service unique rehabilitation and restoration to duty programs, and mobilization contingencies (Department of the Army, 1990). Seven correctional and detention facilities would be closed, eliminating approximately 1816 prison bed spaces (Roth). Included in the closure would be the United States Army Correctional Brigade (Roth).

Under all three proposals, the military would retain enough prison bed space for its current and projected prison population (Roth, 1990). All options were said to

support the military warfighting mission, and support good order and discipline. Soldiers sentenced to death, or those not receiving a discharge from the service as part of their sentence, would remain in the military correctional system under all three options (Department of the Army, 1990).

The Federal Bureau of Prisons would gain badly needed prison facilities and prison bed space at no construction cost. In 1990 state, local, and federal prisons throughout the United States were overcrowded. The federal prison system alone had 54,000 prisoners crammed into 59 federal correctional facilities designed to hold 32,000 prisoners (Roth, 1990). By 1995, federal officials predicted there would be 95,000 to 97,000 prisoners in the federal system (Roth). Prison construction cost were escalating, and the public may not wish to continue to underwrite this cost through increased taxes. Taxpayer groups regularly pointed out that it cost more to confine a prisoner than to send a student to Harvard for a year, or on the local level, far more than was spent on public education per student. Accepting military prisons and prisoners would increase federal prison bed space and decrease overcrowding, at least temporarily. The United States Disciplinary Barracks and the United States Army Correctional Brigade facilities would be the major facilities the Federal Bureau would

receive, depending on the option chosen.

There was precedent for the transfer of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The Navy has for some years had an agreement with the Federal Bureau cf Prisons. The Federal Bureau of Prisons has accepted several hundred long-term Navy prisoners in exchange for two minimum-security Navy facilities (Roth, 1990). The Federal Bureau of Prisons has also accepted other prisoners transferred from the military correctional system. special situations, the military transfered those prisoners requiring special confinement or treatment not available in the Army correctional system to a Federal institution (Department of Defense, 1988). Specific guidelines that determined if a prisoner was to be transferred to a Federal institution included: the prisoner must be one who was at least 22 years old, whose further confinement in the military system would have a negative affect on other prisoners, whose sentence includes dismissal from service or a punitive discharge, and the offense committed was punishable by imprisonment in the federal system. Military prisoners could also be transferred to a federal penitentiary if they were in need of inpatient psychiatric treatment (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980; Department of Defense; Youngs, 1983). The prisoner could be returned to the military correctional system if the treatment was

completed, and he demonstrated the potential for possible return to military duty (Department of Defense). The effect on the prisoners turned over to the Federal Bureau was unknown, though it was known that they did not receive the same treatment or amount of rehabilitative treatment given in the military system.

Some people did not believe the military should be in the corrections business, and that long-term prisoners did not belong in the military. The national advocate group for military prisoners, Mothers Opposed to the Mistreatment of Servicemen (M.O.M.S.), were supportive of the proposal to transfer military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The group's position was that if the military was to stay in the corrections business, funds should be allocated to run the counseling and job-training programs that were necessary to rehabilitate the military offenders. Their position was that budget cuts had already reduced rehabilitation programs and that any future correctional budget cuts would result in simply warehousing military prisoners (Roth, 1990). A majority of the group members had sons serving a death sentence, which would be reduced if they were transferred to the Federal Bureau of Prisons (MSG C. Oxley, personal communication, July 2, 1990).

The military police corps was responsible for the Army correctional system. The military police proponency office

supported the consolidation of military corrections under the Department of Defense, but did not support the elimination of the military's long-term corrections mission. The proponency office viewed consolidation as a way to reduce correction costs and standardize correctional treatment programs among the services. Transferring the long term correctional program to the Federal Bureau of Prisons would eliminate some critical aspects of the military correctional mission. These aspects would include the means that the Army used to maintain unit discipline, provide manpower during times of mobilization, and the system of training the soldiers and civilians during peace time in performing their wartime correctional mission (Military Police Proponency, 1989).

The Problem

The military correctional system has undergone many changes since its inception. In 1990 it was pending yet another review, which was due more to national and military budget cuts and overcrowding in civilian prisons than an identified need to restructure the military correctional system. The establishment of the United States Military Prison was based on the conditions and treatment of military prisoners (Diamond, 1989). Yet, in 1990 little attention was focused on the person who would be affected the most by any changes, the military prisoner.

A majority of the armed forces prisoners fall under the Army Correctional System. To understand the Army correctional system, the prisoners within the system must be considered, and their demographic and criminal history characteristics must be analyzed. The purpose of this study was to determine and analyze any demographic similarities and differences of military and federal prisoners, and whether these differences could affect the rehabilitation of military prisoners should a consolidation of programs occur. The intent of this empirical study was to humanize the issue of consolidation through a comparison of the prisoners demographic profile. All previous studies have concentrated on the cost savings and current facility utilization.

A comparative study of military and federal prisoners was chosen because of the proposal to combine prisoners from both systems. The Army correctional system was chosen because it had the majority of all the armed forces prisoners, and it was the only armed forces correctional system that had prisoners from all branches of the service in its correctional system. Demographics of the prisoners were selected for study because they provided a profile of the persons who should be a important consideration in any change and who would be most affected by any change in the correctional system. Demographics are critical in most

prison systems to provide treatment and programs to the prisoner by age, sex, and severity of the crime, as well as used to evaluate the effectiveness of the prison system. Demographic profiles can also be used to project future prison populations. They were also selected because the Department of Defense in its study of consolidating military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons, did not compare the demographics of the two prison populations.

Significance

There has been no comparative demographic study of the majority of federal and military prisoners. There has been a limited number of studies comparing a specific portion of the prison population at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks and federal prisoners. This study used the prison population in the top two tiers of the Army correctional system, which was approximately 75 percent of the Army Correctional System population. Although the Army Correctional System did not include all armed forces prisoners, by encompassing a majority of the armed forces prisoners that would be affected by the proposals, this information could be of benefit to the U.S. Army and the Department of Defense in their deliberation of the decision whether or not to transfer military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

This also provided a demographic profile of military

prisoners in the top two tiers of the Army Corrections

System. This information will be made available to the

Military Police proponency office for use by the U.S. Army

and the Department of Defense for determining the future of
the military corrections program, its funding, and

forestructure.

Hypotheses

The comparative study of the demographic profiles of prisoners confined in the Federal and U.S. Army

Correctional System was designed to test the following research hypotheses:

- Males made up a larger percentage of the military prison system than the federal prison system.
- The average military prisoner was younger than the average federal prisoner.
- 3. Blacks made up a larger percentage of the prison population in the military system than the federal system.
- 4. A higher percentage of military prisoners were married than were federal prisoners.
- 5. A higher percentage of the military prisoners had at least a high school diploma than do federal prisoners.
- 6. The average military prisoner had a shorter sentence length than the average federal prisoner.

- 7. A higher percentage of federal prisoners were confined for a drug or property offense than are military prisoners.
- 8. The average military prisoner had less prior criminal activity than the average federal prisoner.

<u>Definitions</u>

The military uses terms not familiar to the civilian community. Correctional terms can also be confusing, even to the criminal justice professional. To clarify the military and correctional terms used in this text, this section on definitions has been included. For the purpose of this text, the following definitions are stated:

- Armed Forces Prisoners- Armed forces prisoners consist of all prisoners in the military correctional system.
- 2. Army Confinement Facility- An Army confinement facility is that facility that provides confinement services for pretrial prisoners and post-trial prisoners awaiting transfer to a correctional facility (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980).
- 3. Army Correctional Facility- In the Army correctional system there are two types of correctional facilities. The United States

Disciplinary Barracks provides correctional treatment and rehabilitation to long term prisoners (two years or more) in order for them to return to the civilian community as better citizens (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980). The United States Army Correctional Brigade provides correctional treatment and rehabilitation to prisoners with less than a two year but more than six month sentence, in order for them to return to duty or the civilian community (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980).

- 4. Army Correctional System- The Army Correctional System is all correctional programs to include the correctional facilities, confinement facilities and hospital prisoner wards operated by the U.S. Army for the purpose of corrections (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980).
- 5. Crimes against Persons- Crimes against persons
 "involve physical harm or threats of physical
 harm" (Stephens, 1989, p. 94). For this paper
 crimes against persons will refer to murder,
 forcible rape, aggravated assault, robbery, and
 kidnapping.
- 6. Crimes against Property- Crimes against property "involve the unlawful taking or destruction of

- property belonging to another" (Stephens, 1989, p. 97). For the purpose of this paper crimes against property will refer to larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, arson, burglary, fraud, hijacking, and vandalism.
- 7. Drug Offenses- Drug offenses are all offenses that violate narcotic laws. For the purpose of this paper drug offenses include the use, manufacture, sale, and distribution of illegal drugs or controlled substances.
- 8. Federal Prisoner- Federal prisoners consist of all prisoners confined in one of the federal correctional facilities.
- 9. Installation Detention Facility- "that portion of a confinement facility maintained during non-mobilization periods for pretrial and limited post-trial confinement and for post-trial prisoners awaiting transfer to a correctional facility" (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980, A-1).
- 10. Long term prisoner- Long term prisoner is a prisoner in the military correctional system with more than one year confinement sentence.
- 11. Military Offenses- Military offenses are those offenses only found in the military and not the civilian system of justice. Examples include

- AWOL, conduct unbecoming and disrespect.
- 12. Military Prisoners- Military prisoners for the purpose of this text will be those prisoners confined at the United States Disciplinary Barracks and the U.S. Army Correctional Brigade. This will include Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine prisoners. Though the Coast Guard operates as a branch of the Department of Transportation during peacetime, some of its prisoners are confined in military prison facilities.
- 13. Military Services- Military services refers to the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines.
- 14. Other Offenses- Other offenses will refer to all offenses not found in the other categories of crime. This will include victimless crimes, espionage, sabotage, and treason.

Limitations

The findings can be used to identify the similarities and differences between federal prisoners and military prisoners that may be transferred to the federal prison system under proposals currently being studied. This study was limited to military prisoners of all branches of the service confined to the top two tiers of the Army Correctional System. It cannot be used to present a profile of the average armed forces prisoner. Federal

prisoners were prisoners in the Federal Bureau of Prison facilities and therefore can not be used as a profile of all civilian prisoners. For both populations, females and males were included.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

This chapter will be divided into three major sections. The first section will review the history of the Army Corrections System. It will conclude with the 1990 organizational structure and mission of the system. The second section will review the history of the Federal Bureau of Prisons and conclude with the 1990 organizational structure and mission of the bureau. The third section will review the literature on previous studies comparing military and federal offenders using demographic factors.

Army Corrections System

History

Prior to the First Military Prison. Prior to the establishment of the first military prison in 1874, the Army's correctional philosophy was to use severe punishment on offenders to deter other soldiers and maintain strict discipline. Alcohol abuse, disrespect, and desertion were the most common offenses (Youngs, 1983; Brodsky, 1970). Punishment included forfeiture of pay and allowances, whippings, branding, confinement, solitary confinement with bread and water, and the death penalty. Punishment was often carried out in public (Youngs; Utley, 1967).

If confinement was needed military prisoners were housed in various state penitentiaries and 32 Army

stockades (Diamond, 1989). Punishment and treatment varied depending on where the prisoner was confined. Most prisoners were confined in military stockades, which were comparable to civilian jails. The stockades were in poor physical condition. Additionally, stockades provided no rehabilitative programs and were designed to be punitive and not rehabilitative (Youngs, 1983; Diamond).

Serious military offenders were confined at state penitentiaries. Some penitentiaries were in poor condition and military prisoners were abused and mistreated. There was no rehabilitative programs. Additionally, the military had no control of the treatment the prisoner received (Youngs, 1983; Diamond, 1989).

Major Thomas A. Barr, who was referred to as the father of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, first became aware of military prisoner abuse and a lack of uniform treatment for military prisoners following his attendance of the first conference of the American Correctional Association in 1870. He reported the problems to the Secretary of War (Diamond, 1989). As a result, in 1871 a military delegation investigated the treatment of military prisoners and evaluated the British Military Prison System in Canada (Diamond). The investigation revealed prisoner abuse, lack of uniform treatment, and limited Army control of prisoners in state penitentiaries. The British system

was seen as far superior because in Canada there was an attempt to rehabilitate offenders (Youngs, 1983).

Confinement of deserters was also discussed as a solution to the continuing desertion problem which was not solved by branding or other forms of punishment (Jones, 1957). The establishment of a confinement facility solely for military prisoners was recommended in order to separate army offenders convicted only of military offenses from hardened civilian criminals convicted of felonies; to save money otherwise paid to individual states; and to standardize the treatment of military prisoners (Shindler, 1911; Youngs; Diamond).

In 1872, a bill authorizing the establishment of a military prison to confine military offenders sentenced to a period of confinement in excess of 60 days was signed into law, although no funds were allocated to establish and operate a prison (Shindler, 1911). In 1875 funding was finally approved for the new prison.

Plans called for the first Military Prison to be established at Rock Island Arsenal, Illinois, because it was centrally located, and prison labor could be used at the Arsenal. However in 1874, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, was designated as the location for the U.S. Military Prison. The Rock Island Arsenal site was eliminated by the Ordinance Department and Secretary of War because they did

not want prisoners to handle munitions (Shindler, 1911; Youngs, 1983).

The U.S. Military Prison (1874-1895). In 1874, the U.S. Military Prison was established at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. It was not only the first military prison but also the first federal prison (Report, 1970). Prisoners were not confined at Fort Leavenworth until 1875. Initially since no funds were allocated, existing facilities were used to establish the prison. The three original buildings were still being used in 1989 (Diamond, 1989). With the opening of the military prison, the Army correctional philosophy became rehabilitation through hard labor and education (Youngs, 1983).

For twenty years the military operated the prison at Fort Leavenworth. The initial prison population was four, but quickly grew to 203 within a month. By 1881 the prisoner population reached 447, three less than the maximum capacity of the prison. No incoming prisoners were accepted in 1881. In 1882 the construction of additional facilities opened the prison to more military prisoners (Youngs, 1983).

One of the main reasons for establishing a military prison was to provide correctional and rehabilitative training. To insure the prisoner earned his keep and learned a trade for use upon his release, vocational

training programs were established. In 1877, prisoners were employed making boots, shoes, and similar products in a vocational training program. This was the first vocational training program for prisoners in the United States (Diamond, 1989). By 1880 the prison supplied boots for the entire Army. In 1890 the labor unions complained about competition from prison labor and succeeded in stopping prisoner labor from producing boots for the Army. Prisoners began producing doormats, rag carpets, tents, and sails; were also used in prison construction projects, on the prison farm, and in the laundry operation (Youngs, 1983; Shindler, 1911). As time passed the prison became more self-sufficient. Initially, education was encouraged, but later it became a mandatory requirement for those who were illiterate (Youngs).

First U.S. Penitentiary (1895-1906). In 1894, commanders of installations complained about the loss of prison labor at their installation and the high cost of transporting offenders to the Military Prison (Youngs, 1983). The Secretary of War in the 1894 Annual Report noted there was no longer a need for a military prison. He suggested smaller facilities on military installations would save money on transportation and provide manpower for use on the installations. In 1895, the Department of Justice received approval for a federal penitentiary, but

no funding was allocated. Instead, Congress transfered operation of the U.S. Military Prison at Fort Leavenworth to the Justice Department, and for the next eleven years it became the first Penitentiary operated by the federal government (Diamond, 1989; Youngs). This move resulted in Army stockades becoming overcrowded and soldiers having to be released from duty to guard prisoners. Also prisoners received little training and were not made to earn their keep (Jones, 1957). These problems increased the U.S. Army's need for a prison and prison system.

Return of U.S. Military Prison (1906-1929). Federal prison officials were not happy with the outdated facilities and inadequate security measures at Fort Leavenworth and pressured Congress for a new prison. A new federal penitentiary was constructed and the Fort Leavenworth military prison facility was returned to the control of the Army in 1906. Money was allocated for new construction to improve security and replace outdated facilities at the U.S. Military Prison, and institute vocational training and education programs.

In 1906 military prisoners having one year or more to serve on their sentence were eligible to be sent to the Military Prison. Prisoners sentenced to less than a year were confined in stockades. Military prisoners in the west were sent to the Alcatraz Island stockade in

California to relieve the overcrowded conditions in many stockades (Shindler, 1911).

By 1907 the U.S. Military Prison was beginning to become overcrowded and more prisoners were being confined at stockades. The stockades could not provide the programs that were provided at the military prison. The Army realized in order to achieve the correctional goal cf keeping the prisoners gainfully employed and providing them with an education, more military prisons were needed to alleviate overcrowding in the stockades. The stockades of Alcatraz Island and Fort Jay, New York were designated branches of the military prison and required to meet the standards of the military prison. The Army also realized the military prison at Fort Leavenworth had to be expanded to meet the growing prisoner population. In 1908, prisoners were utilized to the maximum extent possible in the construction of a new prison at Fort Leavenworth, and they learned useful trades at the same time (Youngs, 1983).

During World War I the prison population expanded, with desertion being the major offense. In 1917, 67 perecnt of the 1600 military prisoners were convicted of desertion. They committed a noncivilian crime because they were not able to adapt to military discipline and life. Upon release, they usually became productive citizens in the civilian community (Youngs, 1983).

The vocational training programs were expanded and tailored to insure the prisoner could obtain a civilian job upon his release. Vocational training included work in construction, poultry and dairy farming at the prison farm, wheelwright, tin plumbing, electrical, steam fitting, tailor, shoe and harness, blacksmith, carpenter, broom and carpet making, and laundry. Prisoners were also used on details for general clean-up of the post and for repairing roads on the reservation. By 1918, there were 78 trades being taught by the vocational training section (Youngs, 1983).

The education program was also expanded and tailored toward the prisoners' needs in the civilian job market. Subjects included arithmetic, penmanship, drawing, surveying, geography, telegraphy, stenography, plumbing, bookkeeping, locomotive engineering, and carpentry (Youngs, 1983).

Prior to 1914, all military offenders could be restored to duty. The restoration program changed in 1914, and only prisoners that committed purely military offenses could be restored to duty. Returning offenders to duty supplied the military with manpower needed to meet the army's requirements. In 1919, 941 prisoners were restored to duty (Jones, 1957; Young, 1983).

Leavenworth Penitentiary Annex (1929-1940). In 1929

the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks was again given to the Justice Department to relieve overcrowded federal prisons (Youngs, 1983; Diamond, 1989). This decision followed a major riot at the Federal Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kansas. The Disciplinary Barracks was far below its maximum capacity, while the Penitentiary was seriously overcrowded (Report, 1970). This was a temporary solution to the overcrowded problem, that was to last five years. Military prisoners were transferred to military prisons at Alcatraz and Fort Joy. In 1933, the Justice Department needed more prison space, and as a result, Alcatraz was transferred to federal jurisdiction and operated by the Federal Bureau of Prisons until it was closed in 1962. Finally in 1940, the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks was returned to the military, and Fort Joy was closed as a branch of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks (Youngs, 1983; Report, 1970).

Return of U.S. Disciplinary Barracks (1940-1968). With the return of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks in 1940, the Army philosophy of correctional treatment and the return of prisoners to duty continued. The greenhouse was the only vocational training program not closed by the Justice Department (Youngs, 1983). Additional programs had to be re-established to provide corrective treatment for prisoners and train some to return to duty and eliminate

idle time. Before long additional vocational programs such as the print shop, farming, cooking, and tailoring were re-established to insure the prisoner earned his keep while learning a trade (Youngs; Richardson, 1963).

Incoming prisoners were administered literacy and intelligence tests. Since 20 percent of the inmates were illiterate a literary class was established in 1941 (Youngs, 1983). Special emphasis was placed on education during this period. Some prisoners were allowed to attend classes during the day rather than work.

Lastly, programs to lower the recidivism rate of military prisoners became a high priority. Programs were developed to prepare the prisoner for successful integration into the civilian community. One such program was to house prisoners 30 days prior to their release separately from the other prisoners. They received training on subjects dealing with readjustments as citizens (Youngs, 1983).

The increase in the Army strength during World War II and the Korean War brought with it an increase in the prison population. The stockades were filled to the maximum, causing a need for more prison space and expanded correctional programs. During World War II, branches of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks were established, but as the war ended and the prisoner population decreased and only

the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks remained open. During the Korean War, federal institutions were also used (Youngs, 1983).

The most frequent offense committed during the wars was desertion (Youngs, 1983). In 1945, Private Eddie D. Slovic became the only deserter of over 40,000 to be executed (Huie, 1954; Brodsky, 1970). An effort was made to retrain as many prisoners as possible to return to duty. During World War II, there were 84,245 prisoners, of whom 42,373 were returned to duty (Youngs; Shipley, 1987). During the Korean war, 4,800 of the 18,653 prisoners were returned to duty (Shipley). The Army restoration program provided a valuable manpower source during the wars and saved thousands of soldiers from having a black mark (dishonorable discharge) follow them throughout their civilian life. Vocational training and prison labor became self supporting and in 1943 saved the government an estimated \$198,000. Through vocational training and prison labor, offenders were learning a trade and earning their keep. After World War II, the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks became the only maximum security facility used by the Army and Air Force (Aleck, 1960; Report, 1970).

In 1947 the Army built a annex to the Disciplinary Barracks at Lompoc, California. It was designed and built with assistance from the U.S. Bureau of Prisons. It was

transferred to the U.S. Bureau of Prisons in 1959 to relieve overcrowded federal facilities. In 1989 it was still under operational control of the Federal Bureau of Prisons though the Army retained title to the facility (Report, 1970; MSG L. W. Atkins, personal communication, June 18, 1990).

In 1949, the Army established a pilct rehabilitative program for young offenders at Camp Kilmer stockade. It took soldiers sentenced from 30 days to six months and who were not to be discharged from the service and worked on the physical, mental, and motivational barriers which had to be overcome before they could return to duty. Eighty to eighty-five percent of the prisoners returned to duty as productive soldiers. The motivation for the prisoners to succeed was a shorter sentence, and it cleared their record (Brumfield, 1949). The Army later expanded this program.

Untrained correctional personnel were blamed for some prison problems. Training of correctional personnel and correctional standards became a controversial issue during the 1950's. Emphasis was placed on training and educating correctional personnel. This resulted in new training and entrance standards for correctional personnel (Ramsey, 1955; Youngs, 1983). Correctional personnel had to be:
"Inve feet eight inches tall, 20 years old, of mature judgement, with no conviction record, hold the rank of at

least an E-4, be emotionally stable, and have two year's service" (Youngs, 1983, p.46). In 1967, correctional training at the Military Police school became mandatory for all soldiers (excluding officers) assigned to a confinement facility.

Educational opportunities for prisoners also increased during the 1950's. In 1957, education for prisoners was mandatory for prisoners who had not received a fourth grade education. The Kansas State Department of Education awarded a High School equivalent diploma to prisoners who completed school. During the early 1960's a junior college program was established (Richardson, 1963; Youngs, 1983).

Influence of the Vietnam Conflict (1968-1980). At the beginning of the Vietnam conflict the prison population again began to grow and stockades once again reached capacity. On December 15, 1969, there were 7,016 prisoners confined in 40 stockades. Vietnam also brought some different problems to the Army Correctional system. In addition to overcrowding, untrained guards, guard abuse, antiwar activity, and racial unrest caused problems in facilities. The problems came to focus when a riot at a stockade in Vietnam resulted in one death, 70 injured prisoners, 17 injured guards, and approximately \$97,500 in property damages (Shipley, 1987). This caused changes in the Army Correctional system, specifically, the

establishing of Public Law 90-377 which in 1968 gave authority for the Army Correctional Program, the establishing of the Army Correctional Training Facility, changing the emphasis of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, and civilian committees to investigate and inspect the military corrections program (Youngs, 1983).

The Army Correctional Training Facility was established in 1968. Its mission was to return military prisoners to duty with improved attitudes and motivation through intensive training, supervision, and correctional treatment (Youngs, 1983). In 1982, it began operation as a confinement and training facility. Previously it was strictly a training facility to return soldiers to duty. It has been described as the first "boot camp" or "shock incarceration" program used to shock first time offenders away from criminal behavior. Initially, prisoners were mainly prisoners with military offenses, with a sentence of 70 days to one year of confinement. The program involved the participation of a spouse or parent, and was rehabilitative and not punitive in nature (Youngs).

With the correctional training facility taking over the mission of retraining soldiers to return to duty, the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks placed more emphasis on preparing prisoners to return to the civilian community. New correctional programs, vocational and educational

programs were established to meet this goal. In 1970, the average U.S. Disciplinary Barracks inmate was 21 years old and sentenced to 17.6 months. Types of crime were evenly split between military offenses and civilian offenses. The most common offense was absent without leave (AWOL) as was true in previous wars (Report, 1970). Each prisoner at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks worked on a detail that was designed to teach the prisoner a skill or trade that could be used in the civiliar community (Savard, 1977). Other changes at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks in the late 1960's and 1970's included the confining of female inmates and the addition of Marines as prisoners and correctional personnel (Youngs, 1983).

In 1969, a Special Civilian Committee for Study of the U.S. Army Confinement System was appointed to review and evaluate the Army confinement system and facilities. They harshly criticized the stockades, but praised the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks and Correctional Training Facility operations. They concluded stockades were poorly constructed, did not productively employ prisoners or previde treatment, and correctional personnel lacked adequate training and experience. Much of the problem stemmed from stockades not being given a high priority, just as civilian jails were not. The stockades were seldom given priority with installation funds and assets, by post

commanders who were responsible for the operation and funding of the stockades. The committee found the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks and Correctional Training Facility operating well in providing correctional treatment and training needed to return prisoners to the military or civilian community as productive members. They also found that over 90 percent of soldiers were restored to duty and successfully fulfilled their military obligation (Report, 1970).

In 1974 another study was conducted by civilians and again concluded the overall operation of confinement facilities were good (Youngs, 1983). However it was noted there were too many stockades and guards at the stockades for the number of prisoners housed (Savard, 1977). It was suggested that military police law enforcement functions be separated from military police correctional functions. The report noted the education level of correctional personnel had increased from the last study and many leaders possessed advance degrees in corrections (Youngs, 1983).

Organization and Mission

Army correctional facilities in 1990 were safer, less crowded, and more efficiently operated than civilian jails and prisons. The Army Corrections System had evolved from the use of physical punishment to one of correctional treatment. It was influenced by major wars and conflicts,

civilian correctional professionals, and correctional climate on treatment/punishment of prisoners (Youngs, 1983). In 1990 vocational, educational, and treatment programs long since replaced the whip and other forms of punishment. History demonstrated a well-crganized corrections system was important to the Army's wartime and peacetime mission.

The mission of the Army Correction System was to "assist commanders of all levels in maintaining unit discipline and strength and to promote law and order through participation as an integral part of the military justice system" (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980, p. 1-1). "The final goal is to develop a inmate successfully prepared to return to the civilian community or to active military service" (Turcotte, 1989, p. 25). Correctional facilities provided custodial supervision and correctional treatment of military prisoners in order to prepare them to be productive citizens or soldiers (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980). According to Army regulations, "all Army confinement and correctional facilities will be operated and administered on a corrective rather than a punitive basis. The goal is to help individuals solve their problems, to correct their behavior, and to improve their attitudes toward themselves and towards scciety" (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980, p. 1-2). Another goal of the Army Correctional System was to confine Army prisoners in the most economical manner while ensuring security and appropriate rehabilitation.

The Army Corrections System in 1990 was crganized in a three tier system based on sentence length. Periodically, the Army adjusts the sentence length prerequisites for assignment of prisoners to the various tiers. The three tier system consisted of: the Installation Detention Facility, located Army wide for prisoners sentenced from one day to six months; the United States Correctional Brigade, located at Fort Riley, Kansas for prisoners sentenced from six months and one day to 24 months; and the United States Disciplinary Barracks at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas for prisoners sentenced to more than 24 months. Military prisoners requiring treatment or custody not available in the Army system can be transferred to a federal confinement facility or hospital. Type of confinement and correctional treatment programs depend on the specific tier and facility in which a soldier is confined.

The majority of military prisoners of yesterday were unable to adjust to a military life and discipline. In 1990, they were products of society, and many were failures prior to volunteering for military service. The Army, through its corrections system, attempts to help the

individual through treatment, opportunity, and hope for a better future (Savard, 1977).

Installation Detention Facility. The Installation

Detention Facility is the lowest tier in the Army

Correctional System. It evolved from the Army stockade.

In 1990 there were 12 facilities located in the United

States and three confinement facilities located in Germany,

Panama and Korea that were classified under this tier.

The mission of the installation detention facilities is to provide custody and control of soldiers sentenced to confinement for up to six (6) months; provide pretrial detention, casual detention or confinement for prisoners of all services awaiting transfer or enroute to other facilities; and provide services for post-trial prisoners awaiting transfer to the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks or U.S. Army Correctional Brigade. Some of the soldiers have been returned to duty following confinement (Kelly, 1989).

Soldiers confined at installation detention facility's are used for installation clean-up and maintenance details. Screening of prisoners for future correctional treatment is started, but there are few if any vocational and educational programs at the installation detention facility level.

United States Army Correctional Brigade. The U.S. Army Correctional Brigade is the middle tier in the Army

Correctional System. It has evolved from the Correctional Training Facility established in 1968. Until the 1980's the emphasis was retraining the prisoner to return to duty. In 1990 the emphasis was on confinement and correctional treatment (Jacaruso, 1985).

The mission of the U.S. Army Correctional Brigade is "to provide confinement and custodial supervision of Army prisoners and to treat and rehabilitate them for their return to active duty or successful transition to civilian life" (U.S. Army Correctional Activity, 1989, p. 1). The Brigade receives all Army enlisted prisoners with approved sentences from 6 to 36 months from U.S. Army Europe and 4 to 24 months from all other Army commands (U.S. Army Correctional Activity, 1989). The brigade does not receive prisoners from the other branches of service.

In the late 1970's and early 1980's, 60 percent of the prisoners were returned to duty from the Army Correctional Brigade. During the 1980's U.S. Army Correctional Brigade became more selective in identifying prisoners to be returned to duty (Jacaruso, 1985; Savard, 1977). In 1983 10 percent of the prisoners were returned to duty and by 1984 it was down to 3 percent (Jacaruso). In 1990 only those prisoners who met high standards were returned to duty. In a day of financial and manpower cutbacks, it may once again be less costly to return prisoners to duty than

to enlist and train additional soldiers to supply the military with a source of manpower.

The U.S. Army Correctional Brigade program was designed with a six week inprocessing period in medium custody. The prisoner is clinically evaluated to establish a basis for developing an individualized correctional treatment program that addresses: custody status, work assignments, and identification of education, clemency, and special treatment program needs (Jacaruso, 1985).

Following the inprocessing period, there is an indefinite period of at least 30 days in medium custody with hard labor details. Work programs in this phase are considered level 1 and consist of non-skilled hard labor type of work. They are conducted under close supervision in support of the facility and installation. Examples of the type of work include range maintenance, roads and ground maintenance, and miscellaneous clean-up details (Jacaruso, 1985).

A prisoner will remain in medium custody until he demonstrates he is ready to enter minimum custody. Prior to entry into minimum custody, the prisoner will go through a one week transition program. During the transition period he will go through orientation and counseling. In minimum custody the prisoner will be placed in a selected vocational employment position and undergo any

individualized correctional treatment noted in his treatment plan. Work programs in minimum custody fall into levels 2 and 3, which use existing skills or develop skills needed to find employment following release. Level 2 work is labor intensive semi-skilled work under limited supervision and includes work as cooks, maintenance personnel, and administrative personnel. Level 3 is non-labor intensive skill producing or reinforcing work. This includes work as electricians, plumbers, carpenters, and barbers. All three levels of work are valuable to the installation and confinement facility in the cost and labor savings they provide (Jacaruso, 1985).

The final phase is the two week outprocessing phase, which prepares the prisoner for transition to civilian life or continued training in preparation for return to duty (Jacaruso, 1985). Included is a job placement program based on the prisoners skills enhanced or developed by the vocational training received. In 1988 about 60 percent of the prisoners had confirmed employment following their release (Turcotte, 1989).

Correctional treatment is an important part of the program. Core curriculum treatment is administered to all prisoners during their medium confinement time, and individualized treatment is conducted during medium custody time. Drug and alcohol treatment can be arranged to be

continued following release (Jacaruso, 1985).

Educational programs are part of the treatment program. Each prisoner is tested and any prisoner not meeting a tenth-grade level of proficiency is enrolled in a Basic Skills Education Program. A GED program and undergraduate level courses are available to the prisoners (Turcotte, 1989).

United States Disciplinary Barracks. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks is the highest tier in the Army Correctional System. It also serves as the highest tier in the military correctional system. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks is the only Department of Deferse maximum security confinement facility and is considered among the top prisons in the world (Durick, 1990). It was established in 1874 as the United States Military Prison and is the oldest institution in the federal correctional system (Diamond, 1989). In 1915 the name of the U.S. Military Prison at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, was changed to the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks. In 1990 it served as the maximum facility for all branches of services except for the Navy, which houses its enlisted personnel at other facilities (Cavanaugh, 1983). During peacetime, the prisoner capacity is 1,777 though during wartime it could confine up to 5,000 prisoners (Diamond). Th∈ average prison population at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks is 1,470 prisoners (Durick,

1990).

The mission of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks is "to provide the correctional treatment and training, care and supervision necessary to return inmates to civilian life as useful, productive citizens with improved attitudes and motivation" (U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, 1987, p. 2). The motto of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks is "Our Mission--Your Future." The focus is on punitive correction and rehabilitation. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks confines all Army, Air Force and Marine enlisted personnel with more than 24 months confinement time. All officers and female prisoners are confined at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks regardless of the branch (Cavanaugh, 1983). Soldiers sentenced to death are confined at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks. Prisoners in hospitals, on parole and in federal institutions fall under administrative control of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks (Youngs, 1983).

Prisoners at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks do not simply sit in their cells. The prisoners are kept busy through professional counseling, vocational training, college classes, recreation, and religious activities. The prisoners provide cost-saving labor and services to Fort Leavenworth through general post maintenance, laundry cleaning, and other services. It is estimated the services provided by prison labor saved Fort Leavenworth millions of

dollars each year (Durick, 1990).

The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks program consists of rehabilitation through education and vocational training programs, and special correctional treatment (Cavanaugh, 1983). All prisoners are evaluated upon arrival at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks in order to design a individual program based on the prisoners need and disposition (Youngs, 1983). All prisoners are employed in some type of work ranging from groundskeeping, cooking, bagging groceries or some vocational training program (Cavanaugh). There are 12 vocational training programs ranging from shoe repair, woodworking, furniture repair, auto repair, barbering, horticulture and farming (Cavanaugh; Diamond, 1989). All vocational training programs teach and develop a trade the prisoner can use to seek employment upon his release (Cavanaugh). Upon completion of between 1,080 and 2,000 hours of hands-on experience, each vocational program grants a Kansas state certificate (Durick, 1990). According to Army regulations, work that has no useful purpose other than to keep the prisoner employed is prohibited (Army Regulation 190-47, 1980).

Federal Bureau of Prisons

History

Federal correctional facilities have existed since the 1790's and the first federal penitentiary, The U.S.

Military Prison at Fort Leavenworth, was established in 1895. Prior to the Federal Bureau of Prisons, federal prisons were individually funded and operated. The prisons were overcrowded, politically operated, understaffed, and the staff was untrained. There was corruption in the system and the prisons faced federal budget constraints. Federal prisoners were also confined in state, and local institutions. Military prisons were temporarily operated as federal prisons by the Department of Justice in order to ease the overcrowded federal prisons. Strict discipline and hard non-skilled labor was the norm, and educational and vocational programs were almost nonexistent (Moeller. 1980; Champion, 1990; U.S. Department of Justice, 1989).

In the late 1920's there was a dramatic increase in federal and state prisoners due to a rising crime rate, interstate regulatory laws, and prohibition (American Corrections Association, 1983; Youngs, 1983). A congressional committee was established in 1929 to study the federal prison system and the rising prison population. Following the recommendation of the congressional committee, the Federal Bureau of Prisons was created by Congressional legislation in May 1930. The Bureau was formed in order to develop an integrated federal correctional system that provided custody and correctional programs based on the needs of the individual. The

establishing of the Bureau signified a change in federal correctional facilities and the treatment of prisoners. The establishment of the bureau resulted in the uniformity of federal facility operations, a change in federal correctional philosophy to rehabilitation, and a change in the correctional administration from political patronage to professional administration (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Champion, 1990).

Until the Federal Bureau of Prisons was formed, federal prisons did not recognize the rehabilitation model of corrections. The original mandate called for rehabilitation through vocational and educational training, and psychological counseling. Rehabilitation in the late 1960's was identified as ineffective. This was a result of the inequity of individualized treatment and over 100 prison riots at federal facilities from 1950 to 1966 (Champion, 1990).

From 1930 to 1940 the Federal Bureau of Prisons made significant contributions to the correctional profession. It laid the foundation for the first professional correctional career service, reduced overcrowded prisons, established an inmate classification program, created correctional training programs, and employed inmates as workers in several industrial programs (Moeller, 1980). Since then the Bureau has built upon the early foundation

contributing to the correctional profession nationally and internationally.

Industrial employment of prisoners was made available through the creation of the Federal Prison Industries in 1934. It was established to provide inmates with paid employment (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Champion, 1990). During the depression in the 1930's, many states prohibited convict made products to be sold on the open market. The Federal Prison Industry was not affected because it was created as an independent corporation. Eleanor Roosevelt has been credited with the classification as an independent corporation that insured its survival (American Correctional Association, 1983). Prison industry products in war years included the producing of military equipment and supplies (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Champion; Youngs, 1983; American Correction Association).

The Federal Bureau of Prisons also contributed to the education of the public and politicians in reference to corrections. It brought to the forefront significant correctional issues, and new equipment and ideas to solve problems. This resulted in the Federal Prison Industries Corporation; special treatment and programs for juvenile offenders; revision in Federal sentencing laws; and the use of alternative means of confinement and programs to include work release programs, emergency furloughs, halfway houses,

and community treatment centers. All these programs contributed to the corrections profession and created alternatives to traditional correctional practices. In 1980 these programs were common programs in the federal system and were the result of the Bureau's innovation and education of the public and politicians (Moeller, 1980).

The professionalizing of the correctional profession and staff training was an important innovation and idea of the Federal Bureau of Prisons. Training of correctional personnel has always been a part of the Bureau. In 1937, new correctional personnel received four months of training (Day, 1980). In 1990 the bureau had three correctional training centers nationally and various training programs at each institution (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Champion, 1990).

Overcrowded prisons have plagued the Federal Bureau of Prisons throughout its existence. In 1987 for example, the Bureau exceeded its maximum capacity by nearly 50 percent (Champion, 1990). Federal facilities like state and local facilities are under court order to reduce inmate population. To alleviate this problem, historically the Bureau built new prisons, contracted prisoners to state prisons, and took operational control of military correctional facilities (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Day, 1980). Two such military facilities were the U.S.

Disciplinary Barracks in 1929, and Alcatraz in 1933. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks was returned in 1940, but Alcatraz continued to be under control of the Bureau until it was closed (Youngs, 1983; Diamond, 1989). During the 1980's the Bureau made use of existing buildings on closed college campuses or business properties, and established Federal Prison camps on military bases. Such programs were cost-effective methods used to obtain space for minimum security federal offenders (U.S. Department of Justice). Overcrowding prisons was seen as the principle concern federal prison officials faced in 1990 (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1989).

Organization and Programs

In 1990 the Bureau of Prisons operated 53 institutions to include the largest co-correctional facility in the United States. Control and operation of these institutions was through a central office in Washington, DC, and five regional offices. The institutions and prisoners were arranged by a security level system: security level one being the least secure, camp type setting; security level six being the most secure, a highly controlled maximum custody setting. Levels two through five consisted of Federal Correctional Institutions, U.S. Penitentiaries, administrative institutions, medical facilities, and other specialized institutions (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989;

Champion, 1990). "The mission of the Bureau of Prisons is to furnish safe custody and humane environment for prisoners, and to provide them with opportunities for educational advancement, vocational training, counseling, and personnel growth" (Champion, 1990, p. 44).

"The Bureau provides confinement services at each security level, appropriate to the custody needs of that population" (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989, p.2).

Programs and services offered at each institution included education, vocational training, recreation, medical, religious, and other services (U.S. Department of Justice).

The Bureau's educational programs included a mandatory literacy program, voluntary education programs, and occupational training programs. The literacy program required prisoners who tested below the 8th grade level to enroll for 90 days in a basic education program. The prisoner could stop after 90 days, but promotions through institutional programs were contingent on successful completion of the literacy program. GED classes and college level courses were also offered to prisoners to further their education. In 1989 the Bureau was considering a policy that made promotion opportunities through institution programs contingent on a GED certificate or high school diploma in order to motivate prisoners to better themselves through educational

programs. (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989).

Inmate training was offered at each Federal correctional facility. Programs vary from facility to facility but included such programs as building trades, automotive mechanics, electronics, commercial building maintenance, food preparation, and horticulture. The number and quality of programs have improved over the years to include the use of computer-assisted instruction (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989).

The Bureau operates the Federal Prison Industries, "a business enterprise using prison labor to manufacture goods for sale to the public" (Champion, 1990, p. 44). The Federal Prison Industries program in 1988 employed an average of 14,100 inmates or 47 percent of the working inmate population. This program provided benefits to the prisoners and the Bureau. The prisoner benefited by learning a useful skill and good work habits. In 1988, the Bureau benefited by receiving \$12 million to use for other inmate programs to include the vocational training program. The program also alleviated inmate idleness and unrest (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989).

The Federal Bureau of Prisons also contributed to the correctional practice and profession nationally through its research and development programs, and the National Institute of Corrections. Through the Institute the Bureau

provided technical assistance to state and local correction facilities and organizations (U.S. Department of Justice, 1989; Day, 1980).

Related Demographic Studies

In the review of the literature of demographic comparison of federal and military prisoners, demographics of federal prisoners, and demographics of military prisoners, the following studies and demographic statistics were identified:

- Emotional Disorder Among Offenders: Inter- and Intrasetting Comparisons.
- The Emotionally Disturbed Military Criminal Offender.
- Child Sex Offenders and Rapist in a Military Prison Setting.
- 4. Historical Military Studies.
- 5. Veterans in Prison.
- 6. Published Prisoner Demographic Statistics.

The review of the literature revealed a limited number of demographic studies of federal and military prisoners. The majority of demographic studies of prisoners are conducted using state prison populations as the sample.

Emotional Disorder Among Offenders

Walters, Mann, Miller, Hemphill, Chlumsky (1988) directed a study to assist correctional officials in

identifying offenders with serious emotional disorders. Psychiatric disturbances is a major health concern in the nations corrections system, and early identification is viewed as critical to treating the individuals and keeping them from causing problems in correctional facilities.

The study compared state, federal, and military emotionally disturbed prisoners against each other and against other prisoners in their facilities using: prevalence of emotional disorders; demographic characteristics; criminal and psychiatric background; MMPI tests; and institutional adjustments statistics as measurements. The subjects were chosen from maximum-security facilities at each level from the state of Kansas (Walters, et al., 1988).

Walters et al., (1988) found the demographic data and arrest histories for all three samples were a true measurement of the sample's general population. Military disturbed offenders were younger, better educated, and less criminally sophisticated than state and federal disturbed offenders. Military disturbed offenders were more likely to be convicted of a violent crime, while federal disturbed offenders were more likely to be convicted of robbery. Significantly, more federal and state prisoners reported histories of psychiatric treatment and prior arrest than military prisoners. All three groups exhibited poorer

institutional and disciplinary adjustments than the general prisoner population (Walters et al., 1988).

The Emotionally Disturbed Military Criminal Offender

Walters, Scrapansky, and Marrlow (1986) studied the personality characteristics, demogarphics, criminal history, and institutional adjustment of emotionally disturbed military offenders. The sample included 43 emotionally disturbed and 43 nondisturbed military prisoners within a three year age group and confined for the same offense and sentence length at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks.

The results indicated military emotionally disturbed prisoners were demographically similar to the general military prisoner population, with the exception that disturbed prisoners were more likely to be divorced than the general prison population. Emotionally disturbed offenders were convicted more frequently for crimes against persons and less often for drug offenses when compared to the general prison population. It was also noted that demographic characteristics of military prisoners were similar to state and federal prisoners except military prisoners were younger and had a less extensive criminal record (Walters, et al., 1986).

Child Sex Offenders and Rapist in a Military Prison Setting

Walters (1987) researched the demographic, criminal

background, and personality characteristics of sex and nonsex offenders confined at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks. The sample was broken down into child sex offenders, rapist, and nonsex offenders. Sex offenders are a minority of the prisoners of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks.

The results indicated differences in demographic characteristics of child sex offenders and rapists.

Compared to rapist and nonsex offenders, child sex offenders were older, better educated, white, married, and more vulnerable to a mental disorder. The demographic characteristics of rapist differed from the other sample, in the rapist were likely to be black and less likely to exhibit mental disorders (Walters, 1987).

Historical Military Studies

Restoring Military Prisoners. Turner (1965) studied restoring the military prisoner past and future. His sample was of all prisoners at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks in 1965. He found the prisoners to range in age from 17 to over 45 years old with the average age being 23, and the median age 21; 75 percent having a high school diploma or GED equivalent test; 85 percent having a average or above average mental ability; 85 percent judged to have been satisfactory soldiers by their former commanders; 44 percent had other court martials, and 44 percent had one or

more punishments under an Article 15, and nearly 50 percent had prior civilian court actions; and over 50 percent grew up in broken homes (Turner, 1965).

Special Civilian Committee for the Study of the U.S.

Army Confinement System. A portion of this study reviewed demographic characteristics of military prisoners in Army stockades, Correctional Training Facility, and U.S.

Disciplinary Barracks. Each group was evaluated individually. The committee noted stockade prisoners were younger and more immature in emotional make-up, judgement, and self control than the average enlisted men. Military prisoners at Army stockades were 19 years old, younger than the average Army enlisted men who was 20.2 years old. Of the military prisoners in the Army stockades, 80 to 90 percent were convicted of being absent without leave.

Prisoners convicted of civilian offenses (murder, rape, assault, burglary, etc.) was only five percent of the stockade population (Report, 1970).

The demographic characteristics of the average prisoner at the Correctional Training Facility population in 1969 was 21 years old; single; poorly educated, with only 25 percent possessing a high school diploma; volunteered and was not drafted for service; came from a broken home; and 95 percent were convicted of being Absent Without Leave (Report, 1970). These prisoners were being

retrained to continue their military service and obligation.

The committee reported some demographic information on the average U.S. Disciplinary Barracks prisoners in 1969 to include 62 percent of the population possessed a high school or higher degree. Prisoners convicted of military offenses made up 55 percent of the population, with absent without leave being the most common offense. Larceny, murder, and drug offenses were the most common civilian type offense (Report, 1970).

Behind the Walls. Cavanaugh (1983) noted in his studies of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks that the general population was younger and racially similar to other civilian maximum security facilities. The populations average age in 1983 was 25 years old and 52 percent were caucasian. There was a sharp contrast in offenses from 1969, with military offenders making up only one percent of the population, 67 percent were convicted of crimes against persons, 14 percent against property, and 17 for drug related crimes (Cavanaugh).

Veterans in Prison

In October 1978, the Bureau of Justice Statistics received a Presidential directive to do a study on veterans in prison. In 1979, the Bureau of Justice surveyed 12,000 prisoners in state facilities, and collected information on

the present offense and length of sentence, criminal history, drug and alcohol history, personal and family characteristics, employment, education, and income (U.S. Department of Justice, 1981).

In 1981, the Bureau of Justice Statistics reported about a forth of all state prisoners were veterans of military service. Of the 65,500 veterans in prison: 29.7 percent served in the pre-Vietnam era, 60.3 percent served in the Vietnam era, and 9.4 served in the post-Vietnam era (U.S. Department of Justice, 1981).

The Bureau of Justice Statistics report concluded veterans were less likely than nonveterans to be in prison. Veteran prisoners were better educated than nonveteran prisoners. Veteran prisoners were more likely to be white than nonveteran prisoners. Veteran prisoners had a higher pre-arrest income than nonveteran prisoners. Veteran and nonveteran prisoners were most likely to be convicted for violent crimes, though veteran prisoners were more likely than nonveteran prisoners to be committed for murder, rape, or assault. Veteran prisoners were serving longer sentences than nonveteran prisoners. Veteran prisoners were less likely than nonveteran prisoners to have been under the influence of drugs at the time of their offense (U.S. Department of Justice, 1981).

National Prisoner Demographic Characteristics

Since 1926 the total number of state and federal prisoners has been recorded annually. The prison population was recorded by total population and by sex. In 1987 national prison population statistics expanded to include race and ethnicity. There are many studies and reports discussing the demographic profiles of state prisoners, but national prisoners demographic characteristics are rarely published. The U.S. Department of Justice in 1989 published a report on the 1987 national prisoner population. Of the 581,020 prisoners: 95 percent were males, 5 percent females; 50 percent white, 45 percent black, 1 percent American Indian/Alaskan Native, 1 percent Asian or Pacific Islander, and 3 percent unknown; 12 percent of hispanic ethnicity, 53 percent non-hispanic, and 35 percent unknown (Staff, 1989).

Figure 1 shows there was a higher percentage of male military prisoners than male federal and male national prisoners in their respective prison populations. Figure 2 shows there was a significantly higher percentage of black military prisoners and black national prisoners than black federal prisoners in their respective prison populations. Figure 3 shows there was a higher percentage of hispanic federal prisoners than hispanic national prisoners in their respective prison populations.

Figure 1 Sex (1987)

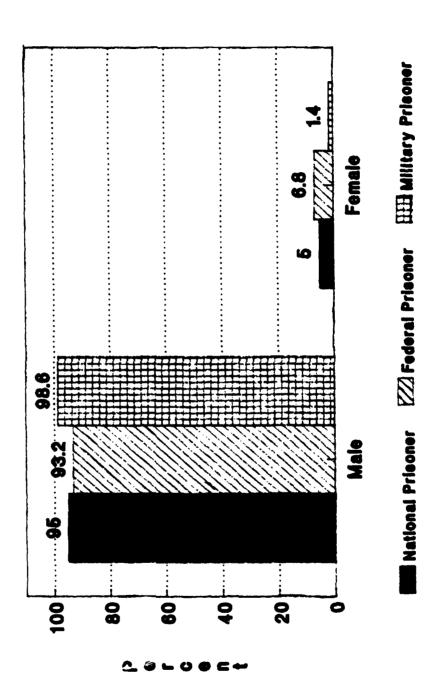


Figure 2 Race (1987)

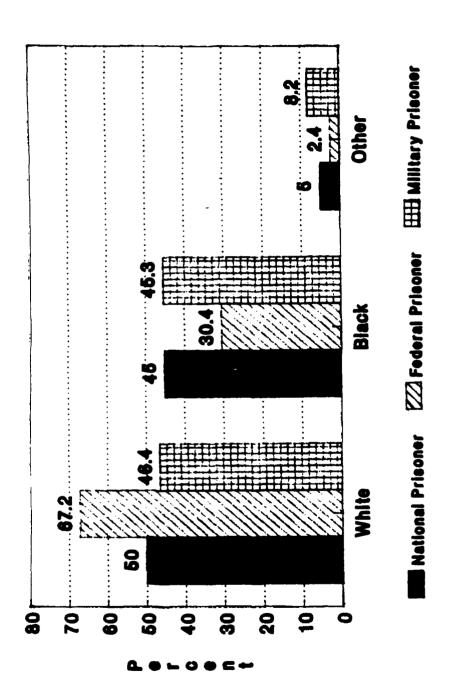
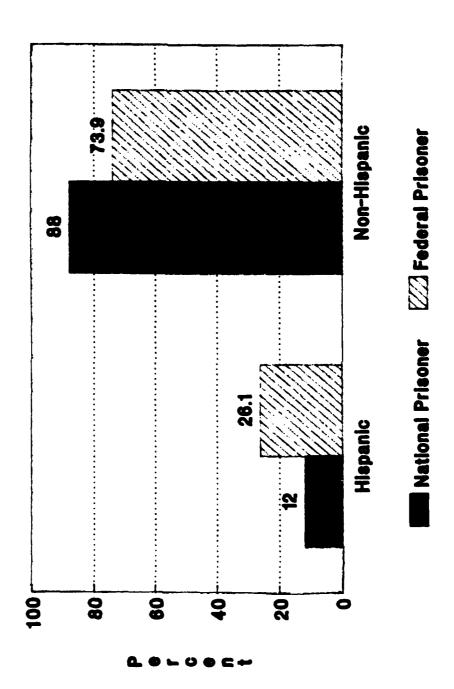


Figure 3 Ethnicity (1987)



CHAPTER III

Methodology

The population, types of data, sources of data, methods of collecting data and procedures for analyzing data are described in this chapter.

Population

The purpose of this study was to compare demographic profiles of federal and military prisoners. It was therefore necessary to determine what sample of the federal and military prison population was to be studied. This study was conducted using all federal prisoners confined at federal institutions and all military prisoners confined at the top two levels of the Army Correctional System. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks and the U.S. Army Correctional Brigade made up the facilities in the top two tiers of the Army Correctional System. These facilities were chosen because they represented a majority of the military prisoners including prisoners from other branches of service. It also represented the prisoner population that would be affected by the proposed transferring of military prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

Data Collection

The types of data, sources of data, and methods of collecting the data were the same for each hypothesis. The specific prisoner demographic data and characteristics used

for this study was:

- 1. Total Population.
- 2. Sex.
- 3. Age.
- 4. Race.
- 5. Marital Status.
- 6. Education
- 7. Sentence Length.
- 8. Types of Offense.
- 9. Prior Criminal History

There were four main sources of data. Data pertaining to federal prisoners was collected and computed by the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The data was collected as the prisoner was inprocessed into the federal prison facility. The data was either self-reported or found in the prisoners records. The Office of Research and Evaluation provided the data it computed during the month of September 1989. This data were on the current population at that time and were not a cumulative total.

Data pertaining to military prisoners were collected and computed by the Department of the Army, Law Enforcement Division; the classification division of the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks; and the research and evaluation division of the U.S. Army Correctional Brigade. Within the first few days of the prisoners arrival, historical data,

background information, and test are administered and obtained. The data were either self-reported or found in the prisoners records. The respective divisions of each facility or organization provided the data computed during the month of September 1989.

Data Analysis

The method of analyzing the data for this study was be done through a comparison of descriptive statistics of federal and military prisoners.

CHAPTER IV

Findings

This chapter will outline the major findings of the federal and military prisoner comparison. The analysis of the demographic and sentencing data on federal and military prisoners confined in 1989 revealed some differences and similarities. This study focused on the demographic characteristics and sentence lengths of the total population including prison capacity, sex, age, race, marital status, education, sentence length, and type of offense. When the data were unavailable from the Federal Bureau of Prisons, U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, or U.S. Army Correctional Brigade, it is noted in the narrative. When available, the information by sex and on the total Army Correctional System was annotated for further comparison. Military prisoners refered to prisoners in the top two tiers of the Army Correctional System, and Army prisoners consisted of all prisoners in the Army Correctional System.

Prison Facilities

Population and Capacity

Table 1 shows the count for prisoners in federal and military prisons in September 1989. As can be seen, federal prisoners were more likely to be confined in an overcrowded facility than were military prisoners.

In September 1989, the Federal Bureau of Prisons

confined 51,848 prisoners in 53 facilities designed to confine 31,091 prisoners. These facilities were at 166.7 percent of capacity and overcrowded. During the same time period the Army's correctional top two tier's confined 2,027 prisoners in two facilities designed to confine 2,527 prisoners. These facilities were 80.2 percent of capacity. The total Army Correctional System was only 62.7 percent of its capacity.

Table 1
Prison System Population and Capacity

System	Population	Capacity	Percent
Federal Bureau	51,848	31,091	166.7
Top Two Tier's	2,027	2,527	80.2
Army Correctional System	2,698	4,299	62.7

Demographic Characteristics

Sex

Figure 4 shows that males were a higher percentage of the prisoner population in the military system than in the federal system. Males were 97.9 percent of the military prisoner population and only 93 percent of the federal prisoner population. Female prisoners made up a very small

percentage of both prisoner population, but both female prisoner populations had increased from 1988.

Age

Military prisoners were younger than federal prisoners (See Figure 5). The age of the military prisoner population ranged from 18 to 53 years of age, while the federal prisoner population ranged from 18 to 86 years. The mean age of the military prisoner was 27.9 years, the federal prisoner was 37.1 years. The median age of the military prisoner was 26 years, while the median age of the federal prisoner was 35.6 years. The mode was 21 years for military prisoners, and 33 years for federal prisoners.

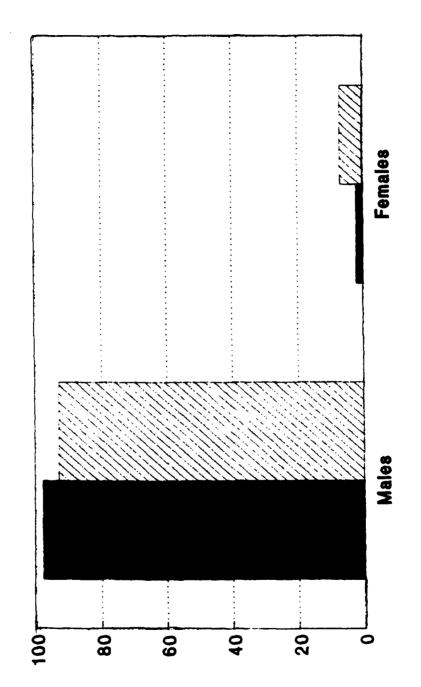
The majority of the military prisoners were between 18-30 years old, and the majority of the federal prisoners were 31 years old and older. While the number of military prisoners decreased as the age group increased, federal prisoners increased as the age group increased (See Table 2 and Figure 6).

Table 2

Age of Military and Federal Prisoners

		
Age	Military Prisoners	Federal Prisoners
Group	Percent	Percent
18-25	45.1	11.8





Military [72] Federal

26-30	26.4	18.6
31-35	16	20.8
36-40	7.9	17.8
over 40	5	31.1

Race

Race was divided into three categories: white, black, and other. Other category was all non-white and non-blacks, and included American Indian, Asian, Hispanic, and Pacific Islander.

Table 3 shows there was a higher percentage of black military prisoners than black federal prisoners in their respective prison populations. White military prisoners were a slightly higher percent of the military prison population than blacks, while white federal prisoners doubled the number of black federal prisoners. Prisoners categorized as other made up a small percentage of the military and federal prisoner populations. The percent of white and other category prisoners increased when all prisoners in the Army Correctional System were taken into account (See Figure 7).

When broken down by sex, black female prisoners tripled the number of white female prisoners in the female military prisoner population. White prisoners were the majority of the federal female prisoner population. White

Figure 5 Average Age

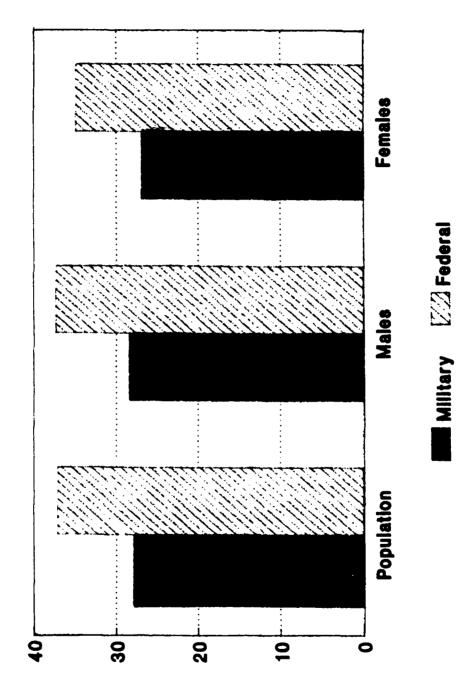
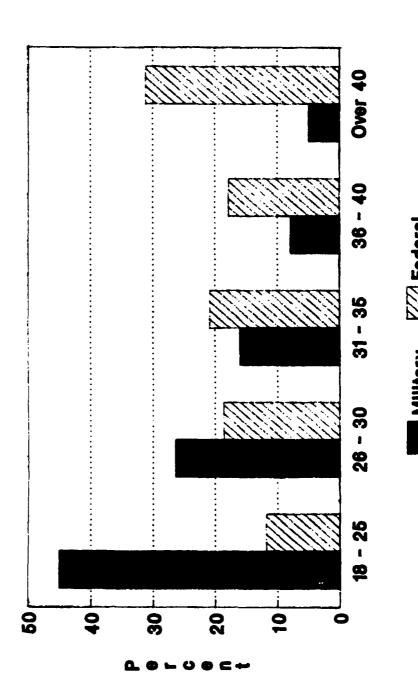


Figure 6 Age



males were the majority of the federal and military male prisoner population. White male prisoners doubled the number of black male prisoners in the federal prisoner population. White male prisoners were a slightly higher percentage of the population of the military and army prisoner population (See Figure 8).

Table 3

Racial Breakout of Military and Federal Prisoners

	Military Prisoners	Federal Prisoners
Categories	Percent	Percent
White	46.7	66.7
Black	45.6	3 1
Other	7.	2.3

Marital Status

Marital status was divided into four categories.

These categories were single, married, divorced, and other.

Other category included annulled marriages, separated, or widowed. These were combined as other because of the different categories of marital status used by the federal and military correctional system.

Military prisoners had a higher percentage of single

Figure 7 Race

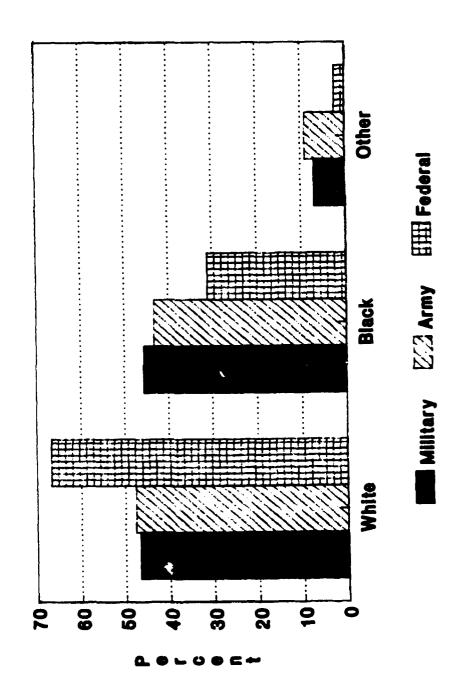
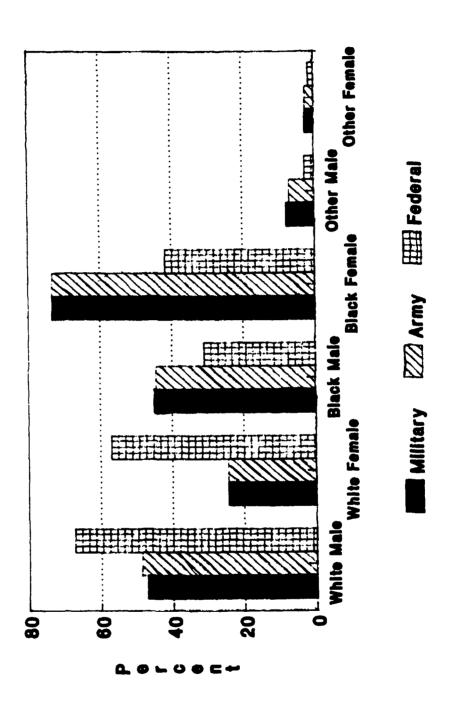


Figure 8 Race



and married prisoners compared to federal prisoners (See Figure 9). Federal prisoners had a higher percentage of divorced prisoners compared to military prisoners. In both systems, single and married prisoners made up most the prison population and differed only a slight percentage between each category.

Table 4

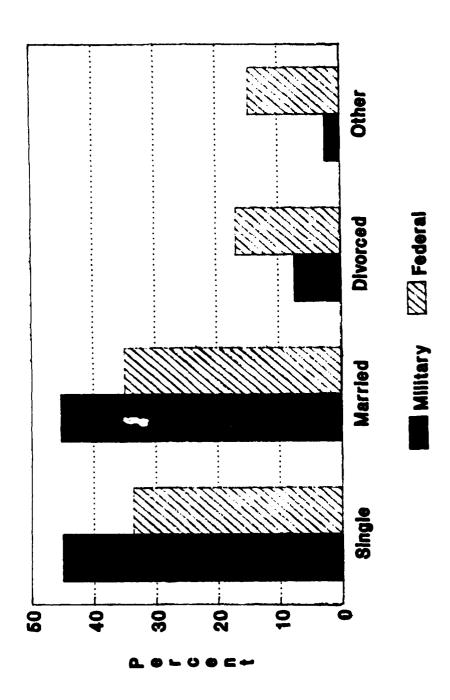
Marital Status of Military and Federal Prisoners

	Military Prisoners	Federal Prisoners
Categories	Percent	Percent
Single	45	33.6
Married	45.2	34.9
Divorced	7.4	16.8
Other	2.4	14.7

Education

Education was divided into two categories, no high school diploma or equivalent and high school diploma or equivalent and higher. The level of federal prisoner education was self-reported. The level of military prisoner education was determined by the prisoners military personnel record and was not self reported.

Figure 9 Marital Status

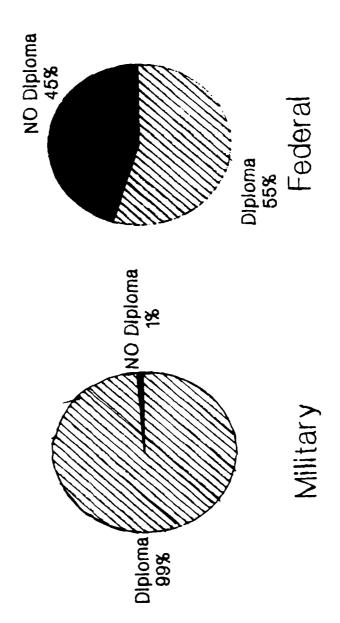


The percentage of military prisoners who received a high school diploma or equivalent washigher than the percentage of federal prisoners who claimed a high school diploma or equivalent (See Figure 10). Almost all military prisoners had a high school diploma or equivalent, while only slightly half of the federal prisoners for whom data were available indicated they had a high school diploma or equivalent.

Of the 45.2 percent of federal prisoners not completing the 12th grade, 1 percent only completed the first grade, 7.7 percent completed through the sixth grade, 26.3 percent completed through the ninth grade. The average military prisoner education level was 12.28, the federal prison system does not compute such a statistic. Sentence Length

The average federal prisoner received a longer sentence than the average military prisoner. Federal prisoners received an average sentence of 111 months, military prisoners 105.2 months. Figure 11 shows the most common sentence range for federal prisoners was 60-120 months, with 120-180 months being the second most common sentence range. Table 5 shows of the federal prisoners confined for less than 60 months, a majority was confined for between 36-60 months. The most common sentence range for military prisoners was 12-36 months, closely followed

Figure 10 Education



by 60-120 months. Table 5 shows of the military prisoners confined for less than 60 months, the majority was confined for 12-36 months. The median sentence length range for both military and federal prisoners was 60-120 months.

Figure 12 shows the average federal male prisoner received a longer sentence than the average military male prisoner. Figure 13 shows the average federal female prisoner received a longer sentence than the average military female prisoner.

Table 5
Sentence Length

Sentence	Military Prisoners	Federal Prisoners	
Length	Percent	Percent	
		···	
0-12 months	17	3.2	
12-36 months	20	13.9	
36-60 months	15.8	14.3	
60-120 months	18.8	29.9	
120-180 months	8.7	16.2	
180-240 months	5	8.6	
Over 240 months	8.7	11.2	
Life sentence	4.2	2.6	
Death sentence	0.2	NA	

Figure 11 Sentence Length



Figure 12
Male Sentence Length

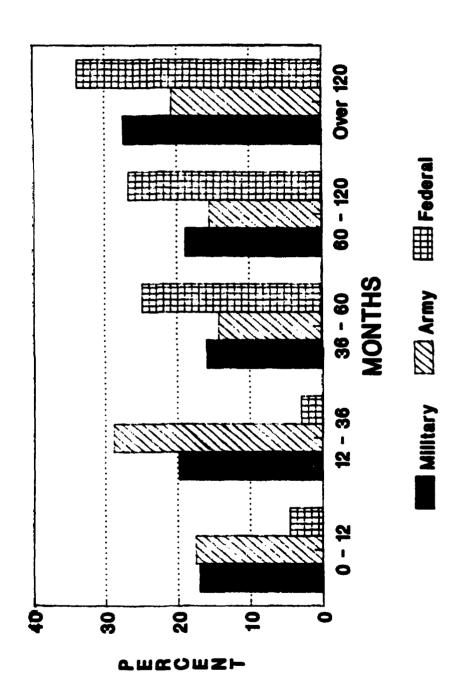
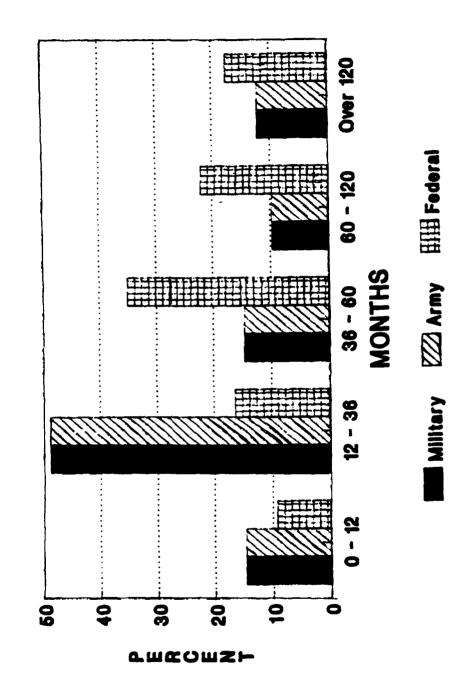


Figure 13
Female Sentence Length



Types of Offense

Types of offenses were divided into five categories: crimes against persons, crimes against property, drug offenses, military offenses, and other offenses. Crimes against persons included murder, homicide, manslaughter, rape, assault, robbery, and kidnapping. Crimes against property included larceny, theft, arson, burglary, fraud, hijacking, and vandalism. Drug offenses included the use, distribution, possession, and the making of drugs and alcohol. Military offenders included desertion, absent without leave, disrespect, malingering, illegal entry into service, and other crimes that are crimes only in the military. Other crimes included all crimes not covered in the other categories and included immigration offenses, parole violations, and national security violations.

Table 6 shows military prisoners were more likely to commit a crime against a person, federal prisoners were more likely to commit a drug crime. In both prisoner populations, crime against property was the third most common crime category.

The percentage of military prisoners who committed crimes against persons was double that of federal prisoners. Of the military prisoners, 39.6 percent committed crimes against persons. Of the federal prisoners, 19.6 percent committed crimes against persons.

The percentage of military prisoners who committed military offenses was 8.6 percent. There were no federal prisoners confined for military offenses (See Figure 14).

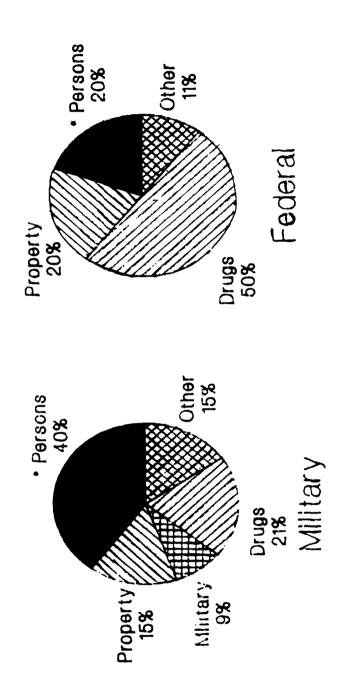
The percentage of federal prisoners who committed drug offenses was double that of military prisoners. Of federal prisoners, 49.9 percent committed a drug offense. Of military prisoners, 20.4 percent committed a drug offense, and 15.3 percent committed an offense categorized as other (See Figure 14).

Table 6

Types of Offense

М	ilitary Prisoner	Federal Prisoner
Categories	Percent	Percent
Crimes against person	s 39.6	19.6
Crimes against proper		19.8
Drug offenses	20.4	49.9
Military offenses	8.6	0
Other offenses	15.3	10.6

Figure 14 Offenses



· persons · orimes against persons

CHAPTER V

Conclusion

This chapter is divided into four major subdivisions:

(1) thesis overview, (2) conclusions, (3) recommendations

for future studies, and (4) summary.

Thesis Overview

The purpose of this study was to develop a demographic profile of military prisoners in the top two tiers of the Army Correctional System and compare it to federal prisoners confined under the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

This study focused on each system's facilities (population, capacity, and overcrowdness), demographic data (sex, age, race, marital status, and education), and prisoner statistics (sentence length and offense). The two military prison populations were selected for study because they constituted the largest group of military prisoners that would be consolidated with federal prisoners if plans to reduce the military budget called for the consolidation of armed forces prisoners and federal prisoners.

The profile developed from this study found the average military prisoner was male (97.9 percent), 27.9 years old, non-white (53.3 percent) though the prison population was evenly divided between white (46.7 percent) and blacks (45.6 percent), married (46.3 percent), and with a high school diploma or equivalent (99 percent). The

average military prisoner was sentenced for 105.2 months and most likely for a crime against a person (39.6 percent) or a drug offense (20.4 percent).

Compared with the profile of the average federal prisoner, the military prisoner was more likely to be male (97.9 versus 93 percent), younger (27.9 versus 37.1 years old), more likely to be non-white (52.3 versus 32.3 percent), more likely to be married (46.3 versus 34.9 percent) and less likely to be divorced (8.2 versus 16.8 percent, and was more likely to have a high school diploma or equivalent (99 versus 54.8 percent). The average military prisoner received a shorter sentence (105.2 versus 111 months), and was confined more likely for a crime against a person (39.6 versus 19.6) and less likely for a drug offense (20.4 versus 49.9 percent) and less likely for a property crime (15.3 versus 19.8 percent).

This study also developed a profile by sex and found the average male military prisoner was 28.4 years old, and more likely to be non-white (52.7 percent) though the male military prison population was evenly divided between whites (47.2 percent) and blacks (45 percent). The average male military prisoner was sentenced for 105.8 months, while a majority of the male military prisoners received a sentence between 12-36 months (28.8 percent).

When compared with the profile of the average male

federal prisoner, the average male military prisoner was younger (28.4 versus 37.3 years old), and more likely to be non-white (52.7 versus 33.5 percent). Data was not available on the average sentence length for a male federal prisoner, but the average male military prisoner was more likely to receive a lesser sentence than male federal prisoners (36.8 versus 7.4 percent). The male military prisoner was more likely to receive a life or death sentence than male federal prisoner (4.6 versus 2.6 percent).

The profile of the average female military prisoner found she was 26.9 years old, and more likely to be non-white (75.6 percent) with blacks (73.2 percent) being the majority of the female military prison population. The average female military prisoner was sentenced to 77 months while the majority of the female military prison population received a sentence between 12-36 months (48.7 percent). The most common type of offense female military prisoners confined at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks committed was a drug offense (37.5 percent). Information on types of offense for the female military prisoners (17) at the U.S. Correctional Brigade was not available.

When compared with the profile of the average female federal prisoner, the average female military prisoner was younger (26.9 versus 34.9 years old), and more likely to be

non-white (75.6 versus 43.1 percent). Data were not available on the average sentence length for female federal prisoners, but the average female military prisoner was more likely to receive a sentence of less than 36 months than female federal prisoners (63.3 versus 25.5 percent). Both female populations are confined most often for drug offenses.

Information was not available to compare the average number of prior offenses or the recidivism rates between the two prisoner populations. The number of prior offenses, arrests, or confinements is not kept on military prisoners confined at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks. U.S. Army Correctional Brigade only records prior Article 15's, most of which would not be a crime in the federal system. One of the reasons why these are not recorded is most military prisoners do not have a prior offense or confinement record other than minor offenses usually taken care of through Article 15's. Most military prisoners do not have a confinement record prior to enlisting in the Army, and most will not be confined in a military prison more than once. According to Army Regulation 601-210 (1990), a person cannot enlist in the Army if they have committed a felony, have more than one driving under the influence conviction, or is pending an open charge. A waiver is needed for many prior criminal activities to

include six or more traffic violations within one year.

Most federal prisoners (77.4 percent) had a prior arrest of which 56.1 percent had more than three prior arrest. It can therefore be concluded that the average federal prisoner has had more prior criminal activity.

Recidivism rates could not be compared because of the different standards of time used to compute the recidivism rate and the unavailability of information for a similar time period. The U.S. Disciplinary Barracks computed its recidivism rate based on the prisoners on parole returned within one year. Since 1980 their recidivism rate has remained below 4.5 percent (D.W. Brothers, personal communication, May 22, 1990). Studies conducted on federal prisoners released from prison in 1970, 1978, 1980, and 1982 concluded at least 19.4 percent (1980) of the sample returned to prison within one year, and at least 38 percent (1980) returned to prison within three years (C. Brinkley, personal communication, July 5, 1990). Therefore, it can be concluded that the average federal prisoner is more likely to return to prison than the average military prisoner.

Comparing the demographic and sentencing characteristics of military prisoners and federal prisoners provided some striking results. The results of the present study indicated that military prisoners were not similar to

federal prisoners. Hypotheses one through eight were supported from the data obtained.

Hypotheses one stated that males would be a larger percentage of the military prison system than the federal prison system. Males made up 97.9 percent of the military prison system and only 93 percent of the federal prison system.

Hypotheses two stated the average military prisoner would be younger than the average federal prisoner. The average military prisoner was 27.9 years old while the average federal prisoner was 37.1 years old. A majority of the military prisoner population was between the age of 18-25 while the majority of the federal prisoner population was over 40 years old.

Hypotheses three stated that blacks would be a larger percentage of the military prisoner population than the federal prisoner population. Blacks were 45.6 percent of the military prisoner population while only 31 percent of the federal prisoner population. The percent of blacks in the military prisoner population was only slightly less than the percent of white military prisoners. The percent of blacks in the federal prisoner population was less than half of the white prisoner population.

Hypotheses four stated a higher percentage of military prisoners would be married than federal prisoners. Married

prisoners made up 46.3 percent of the military prisoner population and only 34.9 percent of the federal prisoner population. The percent of divorced prisoners in the federal system doubled the percent of divorced prisoners in the military system.

Hypotheses five stated a higher percentage of military prisoners would have at least a high school diploma than federal prisoners. Due to educational entry requirements, military prisoners had a higher percentage of prisoners with at least a high school diploma or equivalent than federal prisoners (99 versus 54.8 percent).

Eypotheses six stated the average military prisoner served a shorter sentence than the average federal prisoner. The average military prisoner received a sentence of 105.2 months, while the average federal prisoner received a sentence of 111 months. The most common sentence for both prison populations was between 1-60 months, but most federal prisoners received a sentence between 36-60 months, while most military prisoners received a sentence between 12-36 months.

Hypotheses seven stated a higher percentage of federal prisoners are confined for drug and property offenses than military prisoners. Drug offenders made up a majority of the federal prisoner population (49.9 percent) while only 20.4 percent of the military prisoner population. Drug

offenders in the federal prison system was also confined for more serious types of drug offenses than drug offenders in the military system. Property offenders also made up a higher percentage of the prisoner population in the federal system than the military system (19.8 versus 15.3 percent).

Hypotheses eight stated the average military prisoner had less prior criminal activity than the average federal prisoner. Most federal prisoners (77.4 percent) had at least one prior arrest of which 56.1 percent had more than three prior arrest. Data on military prisoners was not available, but enlistment requirements limit the number and types of criminal activity a person may have prior to joining the Army. These requirements include a waiver to to join the military if one has six or more traffic violations within one year. Cnce in the military, a number of minor offenses including being late for duty or a major criminal violation could lead to confinement and/or release from the military. It is therefore concluded that the average federal prisoner has had more prior criminal activity than the average military prisoner.

Conclusion

The average military prisoner is different from the average federal prisoner. Based on their youth, education level, estimated criminal history, types of offenses committed, facility living conditions and rehabilitative

program opportunities, it may not be in the best interest of the Army, the military prisoner, or society to confine all long term military prisoners in the federal prison system. To consolidate military prisoners with federal prisoners would increase the military prisoners chance of being confined in an overcrowded prison, and has the potential to lessen the chance of the military prisoners success based on recidivism ratesand the extensive prior criminal history of federal prisoners. Military prisoners in 1989 were confined in a totally different correctional setting that offered a disciplined routine and rehabilitative opportunities that the average federal prisoner may not have received.

Transferring military prisoners to the federal prison system has the potential to create problems because of the differences in the age, education, and the criminal history of the two prison populations. These differences require correctional programs and other services that may not be provided by the federal prison system. Additionally, transferring military prisoners to the federal prison system may increase the opportunity for the military prisoner to be associated with and influenced by career criminals. Also military prisoners would be confined for military offenses with nonmilitary prisoners who have not been confined for such offenses. Again the treatment and

rehabilitative needs of the military offenders would differ from the federal prisoners.

Transferring the military long term correctional program to the Federal Bureau of Prisons would decrease the Army's readiness during times of war. The Army Correctional System is used by the Army to maintain discipline, provide manpower during times of mobilization, and to train soldiers and civilians on their wartime correctional mission during peace time. These aspects of the military correctional mission would be lessened or eliminated should consolidation with the Federal Bureau of Prisons occur.

The transfer of military prisoners to the federal prison system has the potential to recreate problems that were solved in 1875 with the establishment of the military correctional system. By transferring military prisoners to the federal prison system, the military would lose control over the prisoners and lose the consistency and uniformity of correctional treatment. These were reasons why the U.S. Military Prison was initially established in 1875.

The transfer of military facilities would not even provide a temporary solution to the Federal Bureau of Prisons prison overcrowding problems. For example, a consolidation of all Army correctional facilities with federal facilities in 1989 would have reduced federal

overcrowding from 166.7 percent to 154.1 percent of capacity. In 1990, military prisoners were not confined in overcrowded prisons, but would be if transferred to the federal prison system.

Recommendations for Future Study

During the collection of the demographic profiles of military and federal prisoners, different areas were noted as needing additional research. Though there was a lack of research specifically on military prisoners, additional research is also needed on state and federal prisoners. This study has highlighted specific areas where future research could be conducted.

A more indepth analysis of the demographic profile of military prisoners should be conducted. The information provided by this research was limited in scope because of the unavailability and non-uniformity of data collected within the military and federal correctional systems. The study should include what data is collected, why and how it is collected. The demographic data collected needs to be expanded and standardized within the military, and nationally in order to better compare prisoner profiles. Examples of the data not being standardized include the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks did not record the number of prior offenses in its correctional data base; and the installation detention facilities only collected the age,

sex and race of incoming prisoners. Also the Federal Bureau of Prisons did not record the prisoners work history at the time of arrest, nor a average education level of prisoners in its data base. Such information could not only be used to compare prisoner populations, but could be used as a bases for developing restoration, rehabilitative, vocational, and educational programs and project funding needs for the individual prisoner and prison population.

Preliminary data indicated there was a need to review sentencing patterns and practices within and among the services. In the military's only long term confinement facility, the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, there was a difference in the average sentence length between services with the Marines having 20 years, the Army 10 years and 4 months, and the wavy 3 years and 6 months average sentence length respectively. If the correctional facilities and prisoners are to be consolidated, consistent sentencing guidelines may need be established. Such a study would result in identification of sentencing guidelines to insure uniform punishment and treatment of military prisoners. It would also provide data that could be used to compare sentence lengths by offense against the national average sentence length by offense.

It is recommended that a study be conducted on the advantages and disadvantages of leasing military prison

space and services to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The Federal Bureau of Prisons is overcrowded and has leased prison space and services from state prison facilities. The military has the facilities and a need to perform its correctional mission inorder to maintain its readiness. The military could use its underutilized facilities, train its correctional personnel, maintain readiness, and contribute to the financing of its correctional program. Such a study could provide an alternative to the consolidation and budget issues.

It is recommended that research be conducted on the cost of confining military prisoners from their initial confinement to their release. The cost should be broken down into phases of confinement. Also included should be the cost savings prisoners provide as a labor source on military installations to do manual labor which is not included in civilian contracts or military missions. The cost of confinement should be compared to the cost of confinement at federal and state facilities. The consolidation of prisoners might possibly reduce the corrections budget, but will result in a increase for the military and the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

Due to the lack of research on military prisoners recidivism rates, it is recommended that further study be conducted on the recidivism rate for military prisoners.

In 1990 military recidivism rates were calculated using prisoners on parole who are returned to prison within one year. A study should be conducted based on all military prisoners released to society using the national standard of prisoners who have been returned to prisons within three years. The results of such a study are imperative since a true recidivism rate will give the military an idea whether its rehabilitative programs work and how many former prisoners were not just one time offenders due to stress in the military.

Summary

The desire to reduce the defense budget, relieve overcrowded federal prisons, and increase the efficiency of the underutilized military prisons has given rise to the proposals to consolidate the military correctional system within the armed forces or consolidate a portion of the military prison population under the Federal Bureau of Prisons in exchange for giving military prison facilities to the Bureau. This study has identified historical reasons for keeping the military prisoners and military prisons under military control, particularly as it relates to the demographic and sentencing differences of military and federal prisoner populations. Based on these findings, the limited impact on civilian prison overcrowding, and the potential negative impact on military prisons and military

readiness, strong concideration should be given to consolidation of military prisoners within the military, rather than consolidation with the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

As of June 1990, the consolidation issue had not been decided. The Joint Working Group for Consolidation of Corrections under the Department of Defense completed its review and presented its findings to the Secretary of Defense in late May 1990. The joint working group presented four options similar to those presented in the previous chapters. The options still centered around consolidating the military correctional system within the Department of Defense or transferring long-term prisoners to the Federal Bureau of Prisons. For a variety of reasons, the joint working group concluded that each service should retain the discretion to confine military long term prisoners at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks or transfer them to the Federal Bureau of Prisons.

Under the option recommended by the joint working group, the Army would lose five facilities, continue responsibility for the Department of Defense long-term correctional program, and continue the flexibility and opportunity to promote discipline through its criminal justice system (Joint Working Group, 1990). Based on the demographic and sentencing differences of military

prisoners and federal prisoners, the Army should continue to limit the number of prisoners it transfers to the federal prison system.

The Army's correctional mission is more complex than the Federal Bureau of Prison's. The Army must retain control of its correctional system in order to rehabilitate the prisoner prior to the prisoners return to military service or release to the civilian community.

Additionally, the Army has a moral obligation to the prisoner to provide correctional treatment. While the prisoners are responsible for the harm done by their actions, the Army is responsible for using the appropriate correctional method to rehabilitate them prior to their release. This can best be done in a military correctional system.

References

- Aleck, H.E. (1960). The first is now the last. The Military Police Journal, 60, 12-15
- American Correctional Association. (1983). The American

 Prison from the beginning...a a pictorial history.

 College Park, MD: Author.
- Army Regulation 190-47, Military Police: The United States

 Army Correctional system. (1980). Washington, DC:

 Department of the Army.
- Army Regulation 601-210, Regular Army and Army reserve
 enlistment program. (1990). Washington, DC:
 Department of the Army.
- Brinkley, C. (Ed.). 1990. [1988 Demographic statistics of federal prisoners]. Unpublished raw data. (Available from Federal Bureau of Prisons, Research and Development, Washington, DC).
- Brinkley, C. (Ed.). 1990. [1989 Demographic statistics of federal prisoners]. Unpublished raw data. (Available from Federal Bureau of Prisons, Research and Development, Washington, DC).
- Brothers, D. W. (Ed.). 1990. [1988 Demographic statistics of prisoners at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks].

 Unpublished raw data. (Available from U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, Classification Division, Fort Leavenworth, KS).

- Brothers, D. W. (Ed.). 1990. [1989 Demographic statistics of prisoners at the U.S. Disciplinary Barracks].

 Unpublished raw data. (Available from U.S. Disciplinary Barracks, Classification Division, Fort Leavenworth, KS).
- Brodsky, S.L. (1970). Crime and justice in the military service. In S.I. Brodsky, N.E. Eggleston (Ed.), The miltary prison: Theory, research and practice (pp. 3-14). Edwardsville, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Brumfield, H.M. (1949, November). Prisons--But with a difference. Army Information Digest, pp. 12-19.
- Cavanaugh, C.G. (1983, June). Behind the walls.

 <u>Soldiers</u>, pp. 48-52.
- Champion, D.J. (1990). Corrections in the United States:

 <u>A contemporary perspective</u> (pp. 193-241). Englewood

 Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Day, S.R. (1980). People make the difference. <u>Federal</u> Probation, 44(3), 40-44.
- Department of Defense. (1988). Confinement of military prisoners and administration of military correctional programs and facilities (DOD Directive No. 1325.4). Washington, DC: Author.
- Department of the Army, Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans. (1990). Recommendation of

- the joint working group for consolidation of corrections under DOD Washington, DC: Author.
- Diamond, W.H.W. (1989, May 18). USDB celebrates 115th birthday sunday. The Lamp. pp. 14-15.
- Durick, M.D. (1990). The USDB reality therapy for student officers. Military Police Journal, 90(1), 12-14.
- Federal Pureau of Prisons celebrates its 50th anniversary. (1980). Federal Probation, 44(3), 36
- Huie, W.B. (1954). The execution of private Slovik.

 New York: New American Library of World Literature.
- Jacaruso, J.H. (1985). Making a difference...in Army corrections. Military Police Journal, 85(3), 6-9.
- Joint Working Group for Consolidation of Corrections under DOD. (May 1990). Report to the Secretary of Defense on consolidation of corrections under DOD. Washington, DC: Author.
- Jones, H.N. (1957). <u>USDB history</u>. Leavenworth, KS: U.S. Disciplinary Barracks.
- Kelley, T.J. (1989). Fort Riley's Installation Detention Facility. Unpublished manuscript.
- McGee, R.A. (1930). Careers versus jobs. <u>Federal</u>

 <u>Probation</u>, <u>44</u>(3), 48-50.
- McMahon, P. (1971). Inside "the castle" at Fort

 Leavenworth. Military Police Journal, 71(2), 7-11.

 Menninger, W.W. (1980). The bureau of prisons and the

- public health services: A partnership. <u>Federal</u> Probation, 44(3), 45-48.
- Military Police Proponency. (1989). Military police proponent position concerning the consolidation of military corrections under the Department of Defense (DOD). (Available from Military Police Proponency Office, Fort McClellan, AL).
- Minor-Harper, S. (1986). State and Federal prisoners,

 1925-1985 (Report No. NCJ-102494). Washington,

 DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Moeller, H.G. (1980). Footnotes on the history of a correctional organization: The federal bureau of prisons (1930-1980). Federal Probation, 44(3), 37-40.
- Ramsey, R.R. (1985). Military discipline. <u>Proceedings of the 85th Annual Congress of Correction of the American</u>
 Correctional Association, 85, 187-189.
- Report of the special civilian committee for the study of the United States Army confinement system. (1970).

 Washington, DC: Department of the Army.
- Richardson, R.E. (1963, December). Conserving human resources. Army Information Digest, pp. 53-56.
- Roth, M. (1990, April 2). Major shake-up of military prisons considered. Army Times, p. 10.
- Savard, J. (1977, October). New beginning; How the Army correctional system deals with failures. Soldiers,

- pp. 28-32.
- Schlueter, D.A. (1982). Military criminal justice:

 Practice and procedure. Charlottesville, VA: The
 Michie Company.
- Shindler, H. (1911). <u>History of the United States</u>

 <u>Military Prison</u>. Leavenworth, KS: The Army Service
 School Press.
- Shipley, M.A. (1987). Combat charlie. <u>Military Police</u>
 Journal, 87(2), 6-9.
- Stephens, C. (1989). Nature and extent of crime. In G. Stephens (Ed.) <u>Foundations of criminal justice:</u>

 <u>The American criminal justice system</u> (pp. 94-97).

 Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina.
- Turcotte, H.J. (1989). A multidiscipline approach to correctional treatment: The USACA model. Military Police Journal, 89(1), 24-25.
- Turner, C.C. (1965, August). Restoring the military prisoners: The man with a past also has a future. Army Information Digest, pp. 57-61.
- United States Correctional Activity (1989). <u>United States</u>

 <u>Correctional Activity Annual Report FY 89</u>.

 Fort Riley, KS: Author.
- U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

 (1981). <u>Veterans in prison</u>. (Report No. NCJ-79232).

 Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

 (1988). Report to the Nation on crime and justice

 (Report No. NCJ-105506). Washington, DC: U.S.

 Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.
 (1989). Correctional populations in the United
 States, 1987 (Report No. NCJ-118762). Washington,
 DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Prisons.
 (1989). Federal Bureau of Prisons: 1988 state of the Bureau. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- United States Disciplinary Barracks; Annual historical summary fiscal year 1987. (1987). Fort Leavenworth, KS: U.S. Disciplinary Barracks.
- U.S. General Accounting Office. (1989). Federal prisons:

 Trends in offender characteristics (U.S. General
 Accounting Office Publication No. PEMD-90-4FS).

 Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Utley, R.M. (1967). Frontiersmen in blue; The United

 States Army and the Indian, 1845-1865. New York:

 MacMillan.
- Walters, G.D. (1987). Child sex offenders and rapists in a
 military prison setting. <u>International Journal of</u>
 Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 31(3),

261-269.

- Walters, G.D., Mann, M.F., Miller, M.P., Hemphill, L.L., Chlumsky, M.L. (1988). Emotional disorder among offenders: Inter- and intrasetting comparisons.

 Criminal Justice and Behavior, 15(4), 433-453.
- Walters, G.D., Scrapansky, T.A., Marrlow, G.A. (1986). The
 emotionally disturbed military criminal offender:
 Identification, background, and institutional
 adjustment. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 13(3),
 261-285.
- Youngs, R.R. (1983). A history of U.S. Army corrections
 Unpublished master's thesis, Sam Houston State
 University, Huntsville, TX.